

# *The* CLEARING HOUSE

A JOURNAL FOR MODERN JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS

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No. 9

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*In this issue:*

Do Colleges Determine What the  
High Schools Teach?

*by* WARREN C. SEYFERT

Attitudes Toward Science Teaching

*by* THOMAS M. WEISS

But—Can They Write?

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Teaching = 3X's

*by* MARION M. COBB

What About Discipline? . . . Children's Summer-School Theater . . . Social  
Class Theory . . . School Psychologists—a Rejoinder . . . You Can Teach Read-  
ing . . . Competitive Sports and Social Caste

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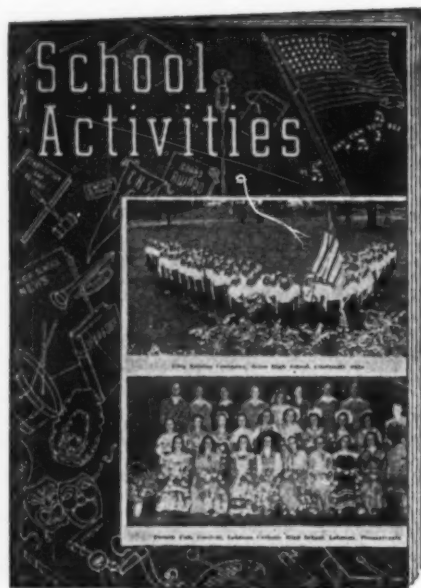
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# Do Colleges Determine What the High Schools Teach?

By  
WARREN C. SEYFERT

THERE IS ONLY ONE POSSIBLE STRAIGHT-FORWARD ANSWER to the question, "Do the colleges determine what the high schools teach?" and that is, "Of course they do to some extent; they always have and they always will." I would make the same reply if we were questioning the flow of influence in the other direction, although I must admit I would have to work rather hard to make the "some extent" in that case clearly visible to the naked eye. The answer to our question, then, is "Yes," and it must continue to be "Yes," for conditions would indeed be in a deplorable state were two institutions so logically related to have no influence on one another.

Unfortunately for the congeniality of the relationship, most school people, in both public and independent schools, give or imply this simple answer and then charge off to scatter in the winds the passions this circumstance has developed in them. We inveigh against, we view with alarm, we pass resolutions until the meeting is adjourned or our wives convince us that it is time to say good night and go home. Giving the back of our hands to the colleges (or the schools) can be great fun, and they may deserve this gesture, but we ought to be more certain than we customarily are that we comprehend the full character of what we are talking about before we decide to raise that hand. Cracked knuckles are painful, and a slap at a friend embarrassing.

A serious analysis of college-on-school influence can be forced into two categories:

(1) How can and do institutions of higher learning influence what is done in the schools?

(2) Which of these influences do we judge to be benign, which harmful, and what can and ought to be done about the situation? In other words, what are the facts and how do we feel about them?

Because, as I have said, I think we usually plunge too quickly into the making of value judgments about college influence with only an abbreviated consideration of the facts, I am going to limit myself entirely to a description of the various lines along which collegiate influence, deliberately or unwittingly, flows. This will hardly make for exciting reading; a dictionary is rather dull reading ordinarily. To shift my figure, I am going to describe the current geography of the area with which we are concerned; someone else can decide where and how to use the bulldozers on it.

Collegiate influence on the work of the schools is most direct and most easily recognized on what we commonly call college-preparatory courses or the program for college-bound boys and girls. Most of what I am about to say will seem to have this focus, but it would be a mistake to think this to be the only point at which the impact is felt, and I shall come back to pick up this idea presently.

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### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Foreign educators have difficulty in comprehending what we mean by a "college." To them, a college is often a secondary-school institution that teaches foreign languages. Our generic term, "college," parallels their concept of a university. And over there, a university is made up of "faculties" rather than "colleges," which is the case here. It sounds quite confusing! Nonetheless, all over the world, it is mostly true that colleges and universities dominate the secondary-school curriculum and teaching procedures. How much domination? Well, that is a question answered differently in different countries. The viewpoint of the author expresses a 1960 reaction in the United States. He is headmaster, Milwaukee (Wisconsin) Country Day School, and prepared the paper for the annual convention of the American Association of School Administrators in Atlantic City this past February.*

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The first main channel by which colleges can and do determine in some measure the curriculums of secondary schools—one I have chosen to name *official institutional*—is made up of the variety of demands the colleges make, individually and characteristically, of students who wish to be considered for admission. Here we have the specific statements of courses which a given college says, in its catalogue, its applicants ought to have taken. Generally, to be sure, only names of courses are listed; and in fine print one can usually find reference to the college's being willing to make exceptions in worthy cases. Hence, at first glance there seems to be only minor restriction or determination here. For the famous and well-known college-preparatory school, this is largely true; for the general run of secondary schools, however, such is not the case, as I shall point out shortly.

Of course, the college may go somewhat farther and describe in great or little detail

what it expects a specified course to be like or to include as subject matter. Then the influence is harder to parry, even for the strongest of schools. Fortunately, colleges are doing less and less of this (some secondary-school curriculum groups seem to be taking up where the colleges leave off), so this need not concern us greatly.

As a secondary school administrator working in a school which concentrates on the education of boys able to do college-work, I am not particularly attentive to the tables of course names any college lists in its catalogue. I and our faculty are, however, mindful of the total picture any given college presents of its admissions requirements and, even more so, of whatever general pattern one can discern from a study of the admissions requirements of many colleges. While college admissions committees are most unlikely ever to be prosecuted for violating antitrust laws, there are enough similarities among their demands and suggestions to make a schoolman wonder. But not only does he wonder; he plays an extremely conservative game in developing sequences of courses and other activities for his college prospects. If there seems to be a trend toward a requirement of at least three years of foreign language study, he standardizes this for all his students. If advanced electives in English are rarely mentioned, his school has none such. If fine arts courses are rarely blessed for admissions credit, his school is likely to make it impossible for a college-prep boy or girl to get such courses. If enough colleges mention the "well-rounded student," the organization man becomes our model.

It is not proper to conclude from this that colleges set out deliberately to force schools into the conservative corral, for the schools have helped to build the fences. But this play-it-safe attitude on the part of secondary schools is induced in substantial degree by the character of college admissions requirements. Moreover, the colleges narrate the exceptions they are prepared to

make to stated requirements in such half-hearted, unenthusiastic fashion that it is little wonder the schools pay slight attention to them. Perhaps admissions officers are so wearied by examining stacks of papers of conforming candidates that they have little energy left to give to a careful study of the variant applicant, although a few of my friends in the business tell me they get real satisfaction in reviewing the documents of the rare talented youngster who has decided to come up by some route other than the beaten path.

Still in the category of "official institutional" influence are admissions examinations, required or recommended. Certainly more youngsters are taking such examinations than formerly because more colleges are demanding them and giving them more weight in their decisions. Although specific and definite preparation for such tests is no longer possible, their general nature and coverage is known and allowed for. If language examinations give little play to translation from English into the language, German, French, and Spanish teachers trim their courses accordingly. If the physics exam stresses mathematics and theory, laboratory techniques get less attention and breakage fees have to be raised.

At this point I want to violate the limits of the category to call attention to a phenomenon at least distantly related to the growth and consolidation of college admissions testing, and that is an almost explosive increase in standardized testing generally. All of us in the schools have noticed this, and many of us are alarmed by it. (The alarm is general enough to have caused the American Association of School Administrators, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and the Council of Chief State School Officers to combine in making a study of the condition.)

The colleges are not alone responsible for this development, but in their efforts to find more precise sources of data for making distinctions among applicants they will make

steadily more use of such test results and, in the process, will encourage schools to get more data from a variety of tests on permanent record cards. And around and around we go.

Such means as I have just been mentioning for colleges to exercise influence on the schools are, I believe, those that most commonly come to mind when the topic is discussed. They are, to be sure, the most evident, and they are, in my judgment, most open to modification by thoughtful and united action by the schools if modification is appropriate. They are known and openly published; they are largely spelled out in detail; they are "official." I am convinced, however, that there are at least three other categories of collegiate influence on secondary schools which are more subtle, often harder for both school and college to detect, less predictable in effect, and, all together, more potent than anything I have mentioned thus far.

One of these classes I call *unofficial institutional* because the college as an institution is involved but its effort to influence school practice is not direct and may not be intended. I submit two major instances in this class.

The first consists of whatever a college does about the preparing of teachers for the schools. To be sure, the consequences of what any one college or university does or does not do in the matter of preparing schoolworkers may be of little moment, though this is not true of major universities that have a large regional clientele. In any event, the young men and women who come into our classrooms are college-made. They may be remade through experience and other in-service activities, but they surely bring a significant part of their college backgrounds into the classroom and use it on or with our boys and girls. If they have acquired respect for scholarship, they are likely to want their students to obtain it, too. If they have been taught that only scholarship is important, they may have

great difficulty comprehending what the secondary school's proper function is.

If the college treats professional studies as necessary evils, tolerated only to assist graduates in getting jobs, the schools employing these graduates have a minor training problem but a major psychological problem in helping such young people to become sensitive and constructive faculty members. If colleges treat their students who wish to become teachers as important and dedicated public servants in the making, the influence on the schools is positive and good. If, on the other hand, a college thinks of its preteaching program as a place to deposit students of indifferent ability and vague motivation, the schools can only suffer seriously from this collegiate climate.

I do not insist that every college have a program of undergraduate courses in the field of pedagogy any more than I would insist that each one have a major in business administration or nursing. No one college should be expected to meet all human needs. But every college must expect that some of its graduates every year will, sooner or later, become teachers, and the attitudes the college conveys to its students about this calling and the advice and help it gives them for entering it will have consequences of the greatest dimensions for the schools. Although at the outset I said I was going to avoid making value judgments, I will say I believe the single most powerful source of influence of colleges on the schools is their attitudes and activities in the area of teacher preparation. Still at the judgment level, I conclude that colleges are beginning to give teacher preparation more careful and thoughtful attention, to the eventual benefit of the schools.

There is one other line of unofficial institutional effect on the schools, and this is perhaps best described as feedback from collegiate guidance and placement activities. Until recently it was rather difficult to motivate the able and alert college-bound senior, because he knew, through a reliable

grapevine, that when he got to college he would be put in courses with a miscellaneous collection of freshmen, all of whom would be treated as though they were completely stupid and wholly unequipped to do collegework. (Professors of chemistry were notorious for taking this position.) Why, then, knock one's self out in the twelfth grade? The realistic thing to do was to perform only a bit better than necessary to gain admission, letting next year take care of itself.

Within the past five years or so, however, and significantly because of widespread changes in college attitudes and procedures, there has been a noticeable change in point of view of high schoolers. With more placement testing at college entrance, the development of advanced freshman sections, the giving of college credit for superior secondary-school work, and so on, many high-school juniors and seniors are being stimulated to a degree of scholastic output it would have been hard to imagine a decade ago. (I should add, parenthetically, that from my observation this motivation is not closely related to improving one's chances of admission. It seems to be more real and intrinsic than this.) The fact that colleges now are willing to recognize high quality or advanced work in prefreshman years certainly has encouraged a growing number of high schools to develop courses for their academically able students which we would not have bothered with a short while ago. Those familiar with the Advanced Placement Program will recognize this as an outstanding example of genuine school-college co-operation.

In our school we recognize another kind of feedback. This consists of the conversational comments and official observations we get from our contacts with admissions officers. We are likely to listen very carefully as they discuss adjustment problems they observe freshmen experiencing, the most frequent academic difficulties freshmen have, and so on. Whether we should or not,

we are likely to give more than passing thought to what we hear. Not that we dash off to take action on every hint dropped, but I could easily illustrate, as could other schoolmen, experimental program changes instigated or encouraged by such conversations.

My next category of collegiate influences I have titled *official personal*. In this I place all of the activities of college personnel when operating personally but in roles appropriate to their positions as university teachers and scholars. A most significant instance here is the preparation of textbooks and other teaching materials for the schools. I know that the perspicacious editor always has the name of at least one schoolteacher on the title page (and, I admit, the effect of the teacher on the book is frequently substantial). But the scholarship and judgments of college teachers have affected the character and quality of our textbooks and will go on doing so. (To hazard another opinion, what college teachers do to or for the schools through textbook writing ranks close behind teacher preparation in weight of impact on the schools.)

A closely related source of influence, though often more oblique in transmission, is the activities of college teachers, individually or as groups, in developing new courses and teaching materials for their own use at the college level. Although I may sound to some curriculumworkers as though I were hissing my grandmother, I do recommend more careful study of college curriculum experiments and teaching materials by school people. Surprisingly enough, some college materials, especially those prepared for freshmen, are very useful at the secondary-school level, and not just with our ablest students. The text we are using with our juniors in mathematics (in effect, a new course in mathematics) was developed for college freshmen; we use the booklets developed at Amherst in their American Studies program in American history; the only material we could find for some ex-

perimental work in structural linguistics with ninth and tenth graders was a college text—which most of our students found quite manageable. Actually, there is a considerable amount of curriculum ferment boiling in the colleges. A lot of the brew is too heady for us, and such effect as it may have on the schools is likely to continue to be very low pressure, but we would be unwise to neglect it or blindly fight it. I'll bet the teaching of formal, traditional English grammar would all but disappear from the schools within five years (the student life of a textbook) if university scholars in the field of language study would get together and be courageous enough to say what they know to be so—that it makes practically no sense—and would refuse to have a hand in revising textbooks for it.

To continue with other instances of official personal influences, I call your attention to the participation of college and university faculty members in curriculum studies and in other co-operative ventures with the schools. While such participation most often involves only members of departments of education, one can observe, here and there, members of the academic departments collaborating in such activities.

Certainly, one would also want to include in this category the formalized relations of the colleges with their alumni, who are our parents and supporters. Even though the evident interest of the secretary for alumni affairs is usually the raising of money, the activities and interests of alumni groups often have a wider reach. Every principal must surely have been approached by the alumni group from such-and-such college wanting to know why his students are not better prepared on entering their alma mater.

And a ringing and quotable statement by the president of the college (any college) on the condition of affairs in precollegiate education can be counted on to produce a delegation of at least three disturbed parents in the principal's office within two days.



I come, now, to my fourth and final category: *unofficial personal influence*. Of profound importance to mankind generally and to the schools in particular are the new knowledge, the new relationships, the new insights which flow from the studies and laboratories of our colleges. Perhaps you think I stretch my analysis rather far in bringing this in, but how can one talk about colleges' determining what is taught in the schools and overlook the contributions to human knowledge and understanding which scholars are making? Did you do a sociometric study of some sixth graders this fall? Some scholars built you the tool. In this country we build our history courses on impersonal research and not on political congeniality. Biologists and anthropologists have given us the facts and generalizations from which have been constructed the position we now take on the irrelevance of pigmentation and nasal contours.

Our scholars do indeed help to determine what is taught in the schools. To refuse or overlook this help would be the equivalent of migrating to Tasmania.

But there is one other, and often less pleasant, kind of personal influence I must mention. This comes from the college teacher who steps outside his field of scholarship, abandons the disciplines of scholarship, and lets go a blast at the schools because he thinks thereby he will titillate his audience, get headlines and another invitation to speak at a higher fee. I exaggerate, I know, but you recognize what I have in mind, and you undoubtedly have sat and silently seethed, as I have, through his parade of half-truths and witty, but unsound, analogies. What the net effects on the schools may be of this Delphic approach I am not certain. I note, however, that oracles went out of style some centuries ago, and the sites of their operations are now populated exclusively by tourists with cameras loaded.

At the outset I observed that much of what I would have to say would appear to

apply principally to what the schools do for youngsters who are college-bound but that I would come back to comment on a broader spread of collegiate influence. This I now want to do in part and quickly because I think you have long since figured it out for yourselves.

College-going is now much more than it has ever been a status symbol. It will continue to be such in our lifetimes. Hence, more students are going to want to take the courses and do the things which seem to be required for college admission. This is likely to mean that many students who ought not to will undertake courses with high academic requirements with little or no success. And we may also be tempted to develop courses which look like real preparation for college but actually are not. Not the colleges themselves but society is putting an added responsibility on the guidance programs and curriculum makers in our secondary schools.

Even though the college preparatory group may be a minority in a school—and this condition becomes less frequent—its attitude toward learning rather commonly determines the academic climate of the school. If you accept this and the proposition that colleges and schools co-operatively are improving the academic tone of this group, you conclude that the academic pitch of the entire school will be raised somewhat.

I have not given a complete catalogue of the ways in which colleges may determine what is done in the schools, but I think I have made enough entries to establish my main point: This is not a simple business. It is not a single wave which moves inexorably in one direction.

This whole matter of college influence on the schools seems to me very much like the effect of alcohol on human beings. Its influences on body chemistry are not wholly understood; taken in excess it is deadly; in moderation it can be pleasant and even stimulating. And the proof is what counts.



# SOCIAL CLASS THEORY

## The Lower-Class Child in the Middle-Class School

By ALAN SHAPIRO

THIS YEAR AT Isaac Young Junior High School in New Rochelle I am teaching two different groups of students. One group is made up of students who are alert, ambitious, and studious. These boys and girls come to school with clean clothes, well-combed hair, and hands and faces that have been washed. Almost all of them are living with both parents in homes with "good" addresses. Their mothers are housewives who have two or, at most, three children to care for. Their fathers are lawyers, certified public accountants, and sales managers. These students speak in what most of us would term good English; they do their assignments every day; and the only time they appear in the assistant principal's office is when they are bringing messages. All, or

certainly almost all, of them will go to college. They are in their interests, behavior, and values typical products of middle-class culture.

The second group of students is composed of boys and girls whose interest in school is minimal. Many of them come to school in worn and soiled blouses and sweaters. Their nails and hands are often dirty and, except perhaps for most of the girls, their hair is rarely combed. They come from homes with "poor" addresses. About half of them are living with stepparents or with their mothers and five or six brothers and sisters. Their mothers do housework for other people; their fathers have jobs as welders, plumbers, and janitors. These students speak in what most of us would term "poor" English; most of them will not complete outside assignments; and when they are sent to the assistant principal's office they bear referral cards and not messages. Both boys and girls are aggressive physically, make crude remarks without compunction, and do not appear to have any special ambitions. They are in their interests, behavior, and values typical products of lower-class culture.

Despite the fact that many Americans have an almost instinctive negative reaction when they hear such terms as middle class or lower class, the accumulating evidence produced by sociologists in the past twenty years or so has made it abundantly clear that most American communities do display a structure of class groupings. The pioneering study of W. Lloyd Warner and his associates in Newburyport, Massachusetts, and published in what has become

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### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Sociology and education are not so distant from each other as they used to be. Hardly a school of cosmopolitan enrollment is now unaware of the sociological backgrounds of its students. This does not say that they are implementing this awareness into everyday practice. Far from it! But much progress has resulted from the studies by Kvaraceus, Havighurst, Warner, and Hollingshead, and it is just a question of time until what is known is translated into appropriate action. The author of this analysis of behavioral differences among children and youth of various socioeconomic standing has presented the case fairly and well. He is chairman of the English department, Isaac E. Young Junior High School, New Rochelle, New York.*

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known as the Yankee City series, embodied probably the first published evidence in any systematic form of class groupings and class cultures as they were displayed in a small New England community. Warner's work has been followed by a substantial body of literature in which his research techniques have been used to study the class structure of other communities. Other researchers, such as Allison Davis and Robert Havighurst, have examined in detail the child-rearing practices of lower- and middle-class parents as well as social class influences upon learning. Still others have shown, as in the recent N.E.A. reports on juvenile delinquency, that much of the norm-violating behavior which is termed delinquency is the product of lower-class culture.

Thus, although there is today more than ample evidence of the existence of social classes in American communities, there remains an inclination on the part of teachers and administrators to ignore the implications of class structure for educational policy and to think of a school program as if it were operating outside of society.

The terms lower class and middle class refer to systems of behavior and interests, to focal concerns and values, rather than, as sometimes, indicate the amount of money which a person or a group has, although it is usually true that lower-class people are poorer in material things than are those in the middle class. As cautionary notes, let me say, too, that in the description which I offer here, I do not mean to suggest that *all* lower-class or *all* middle-class people necessarily exhibit *all* of the characteristics named; nor do I mean to suggest that the class groupings which exist in our country are rigidly stratified. It is, I think, obvious that individual persons in the course of their lives move into higher or occasionally lower classes.

Now, lower-class culture has basically different attitudes than does middle culture towards aggression and personal relations,

to mention only two of the more important matters in the wider American culture. In the middle class, for instance, aggression takes the forms of initiative, ambition, and the drive for success, but in the lower class aggressiveness more frequently appears as physical attack. While the middle-class parent will usually tell his child to strike back only if he is first attacked (and it is interesting to note that this is also true of the official middle-class United States position in its relations with other countries), the lower-class child is urged to hit first and to hit with whatever is available. Fighting with fists or even weapons is a not uncommon thing for a lower-class child to witness in his home, and he generally learns his lesson early and well. To quote Allison Davis, "The important consideration with regard to aggression in lower-class adolescents is that it is learned as an *approved and socially rewarded* form of behavior in their culture. . . . The conception that aggression and hostility are neurotic or maladaptive symptoms of a chronically frustrated adolescent is an ethnocentric view of middle-class individuals."<sup>1</sup>

The area of sex is another in which middle- and lower-class behaviors differ substantially. Despite the prevalence of divorce in the United States during the past thirty years or so, it is not the *usual* thing for a middle class child to observe sexual infidelity on the part of his parents. Middle-class boys and girls, especially girls, are impressed with the social humiliation which they will suffer if misconduct is discovered. Lower-class children, on the other hand, living as they frequently do with parents and older brothers and sisters in the same room, are much more likely to be sophisticated about sexual behavior. Similarly, it is not uncommon for lower-class children to be raised in what the sociologists call "serial" households, that is, homes in which there is no

<sup>1</sup> "Socialization and Adolescent Personality" in *Readings in Social Psychology* (New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1947), p. 147.

real father but only a succession of men who live with the mother for a period of time and then disappear. In such an atmosphere the lower-class child learns the facts of life much more quickly, learns, too, to be much more open, frank, and uninhibited in his behavior toward the opposite sex.

As one analyzes the unique behaviors which characterize middle- and lower-class cultures, one must also observe that middle-class children learn from their parents the importance of postponing immediate and lesser gratifications for more distant and greater rewards; that for the middle class, property is something to be cherished and to be preserved; that children are inculcated with a desire for achievement, are apt to experience punishment in the form of withdrawal of parental approval and love, are forced to assume responsibilities at an early age, and are likely to experience more anxiety and nervousness than do lower-class children. On the other hand, lower-class children learn from their culture that property is something to be used immediately and worn out, that misconduct will result in a physical beating but not in the deprivation of love. And, as Joseph Kahl has pointed out, with lower-class adults the "Horatio Alger myth is a middle class myth,"<sup>2</sup> for many lower-class people are simply not concerned with striving for success in the terms which middle-class people do.

Other major focal concerns of lower-class people have been recently summarized in the N.E.A. reports on delinquent behavior previously mentioned. The authors state that these include trouble-getting into, staying out of, or making trouble; smartness, toughness, the desire for excitement, luck, and autonomy.

Frequently the behavior of lower-class children is characterized in such statements as "These kids don't know right from

wrong." Quite to the contrary, lower-class children are usually well aware of what the official rules of middle-class society are. But, say the writers of the N.E.A. report, "their perception of the potential gains to themselves in terms of prestige, group status and appropriate or demanded behavior outweighs their perception of the sanctions that can be directed against them"<sup>3</sup> for actions which middle-class society regards as improper.

Turning now to the problems which face a lower-class child in school and to the reasons why he gives teachers headaches, I must begin by asking if the school is not frequently an even greater headache to the lower-class student. Here are some reasons for thinking that the answer is "yes":

In the first place, most of our public schools are middle-class institutions with middle-class values, middle-class interests, middle-class motivations, and middle-class teachers. While I do not want to suggest that I am using the words "middle class" as an epithet, I ask you to put yourself in the place of a lower-class child in the early years of elementary school. Coming from the kind of background which I have indicated, lacking the middle-class child's experiences with toys, books, and trips, limited in his vocabulary and oriented in the direction of the concrete rather than the abstract and in the direction of activity rather than verbalization, he can have little understanding of the reasons for many teacher-imposed restrictions and goals. Unlike the middle-class child, whose parents prize intellectual achievement, the lower-class child wins his social and emotional rewards from physical attainments.

Consider next a major aspect of the early elementary program—reading: "The stories in a typical pre-primer, primer, or first reader deal with a single family, consisting of a father, mother, son, and daughter. Almost always they live in a one-family,

<sup>2</sup>"Aspirations of 'Common Man' Boys" in Blaine E. Mercer and Edwin R. Carr, *Education and the Social Order* (New York: Rhinehart and Co., Inc., 1957), p. 131.

<sup>3</sup>William C. Kvaraceus et al., *Delinquent Behavior: Culture and the Individual* (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1959), p. 65.

well-furnished house in an upper middle-class suburban community. . . . What is presented in these schoolbooks as a meaningful and familiar life situation is in no way related to the actual environmental setting in which the low socioeconomic child lives and learns."<sup>4</sup> The obvious result of reading instruction which makes use of such materials with lower-class children is that for many of them reading becomes a pointless chore.

You may be thinking at this point that these lower-class children are uninterested in reading because they lack the requisite intelligence. After all, don't the low I.Q. results which we get from such children indicate that they have less native ability than other children? The answer of a group of researchers who worked under a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation is "no."<sup>5</sup> Their study revealed that most of the commonly used tests employ a vocabulary and a type of item which middle-class children, because of their background, find not so difficult as do lower-class pupils.

Perhaps the biggest school headache for the lower-class child is his teacher, who is usually a product of a cultural environment in which the middle-class virtues and ambitions are dominant. The teacher properly regards the lower-class child as one who has come from a different world. Most unfortunately, the teacher usually understands very little about that world.

The lower-class child violates just about every notion that the teacher has of what is proper. He doesn't respond to the usual motivation; he is poorly dressed; he may be unclean; his use of the English language does not conform to middle-class standards of correctness; he curses; he mishandles textbooks; he has little interest in abstract ideas. According to Warner, Havighurst,

and Loeb, "This behavior of the lower class child is all the more repellent to the teacher because she finds it incomprehensible; she cannot conceive that any normal human being would act in such a way."<sup>6</sup>

Thus, our educational system, whatever success it may have with middle-class children, is largely ineffective with lower-class youth, who simply refuse to work out in the fine moral gymnasium which we offer them. They are not going to be ambitious, responsible, and conscientious just because we tell them to be; they are not going to play a character-building game for the game's sake. While they can readily see that for middle-class children the rewards of education are real—after all, *their* parents already have the rewards—they can also see that for most of them the rewards are not realistic. And since their own lower-class culture offers them the rewards of social prestige and social acceptance without an education, they cannot take too seriously the motivations which the school offers them.

What, then, can be done? The first thing that can be done is for more of us to *recognize* that the situation which I have been reporting exists—and by "us" I mean not only teachers, but also administrators and teacher-training institutions. The time is long overdue for the teachers colleges, in particular, to recognize that at least one-third of the children whom they are training people to teach come from a lower-class culture and will simply not respond to the usual methods and materials. These children cannot and will not learn in the same manner as middle-class children and cannot and will not respond to the same curriculums.

But whatever the teachers colleges may do in the future, most of us have been graduated. What can we do? I'm afraid that one of the most important answers is some hard study of the children in our schools and some thoughtful research and curricu-

<sup>4</sup> Melvin Roman *et al.*, "Reading Retardation and Delinquency," reprinted from the *Journal of the National Probation and Parole Association*, I, No. 1 (July, 1955).

<sup>5</sup> *Learning and the Teacher* (Washington, D.C.: Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1959), pp. 167-168.

<sup>6</sup> W. Lloyd Warner *et al.*, *Who Shall Be Educated?* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1944), p. 172.

lum work to rewrite programs for lower-class children. Before any writing, though, we are going to have to learn what the beliefs of a lower class child are, what his behavior means, and what his conceptions of the teacher and the school are. In short, we are going to have to do some long-deferred homework.

Third, we are going to have to stop making facile generalizations about "the child." Many of the books of child and adolescent psychology are shot through with the same middle-class orientation which I have been discussing and characterize certain children as being emotionally maladjusted, psychologically upset, and the like. Most lower-class children are *socially* maladjusted to middle-class society but quite well adjusted, socially, psychologically, and every other way to lower-class society.

Fourth, if we wish to change the behavior of lower-class children, then we have got to be a lot more specific about just what behaviors we want them to learn and design our programs so that there is some possibility that the programs will produce be-

havioral change. Traditionally, for instance, schools have held it as part of their philosophy that they wished to develop good democratic citizens. However, too frequently the philosophy of the school and the actual practices which have been carried on in the classroom bear no relation to each other. If we really believe that it is important to produce democratic citizens, then classroom and school practice must be functionally related to this goal and teachers alert to the everyday possibilities of affecting the behavior of students.

Finally, let us have an end to the "gimmick" approach to slow learners. Let us have an end to the attitude that all that is needed is a few tricky teaching techniques. A fruitful approach to the instruction of lower-class children will result only from a thoughtful reappraisal of what we are trying to do and why. Unless we are prepared to make such a reappraisal, we shall continue to hear the complaints about "those terrible children," complaints which do neither the complainers nor "those children" very much good.

## International Understanding

By ANN REID

Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

In our school, we have the unique opportunity of promoting international understanding by participating in a "foreign aid program." Students from many countries are enrolled while their parents are on tours of duty at the Aviation Agency Aeronautical Center. The counselors designate such students as "specials," and channel their classes and activities to emphasize foreign language and social studies. The teachers in these departments then utilize the knowledge of these "specials" to interpret, for their classes, the language and life in other countries.

An interesting and realistic approach through conversation, stories, letters, and pictures, accelerates

the study. Through class tape recordings and pictures, an exchange of ideas with classes in foreign countries broadens the experience.

The orientation of the "specials" is activated through field trips to focal points. The Indian Village, frontier town, oil exhibit, and the packing plants are capsuled history that will not be forgotten.

Through this person-to-person, foreign aid program, we believe our students gain a true insight into international problems as well as a deep respect for these problems and a better understanding of them.



# Competitive Sports and Social Caste

By WILLIAM J. FITZPATRICK

COMPETITIVE ATHLETICS IN AMERICA seem to be the priority of the lower socioeconomic classes. People and classes that are on their way upward to the middle class find that professional sports offer an opportunity for this advance. Secondary schools offer young people a chance to participate in these highly competitive physical-contact sports. However, only a small percentage of the student body participates in these competitive sports.

Educational policy makers are hard pressed these days for funds to support these traditional sport programs. There is a growing disinterest on the part of student bodies to underwrite the cost through general organization funds or student admission fees. So many of our youth have found other diversissements, such as the automobile. Adulation among student bodies has switched from the football hero to the sports-car owner. This may result in the gradual abandonment of competitive team athletics by schools.

These sports cannot be justified on the grounds of their value to physical fitness

because they appeal only to a special group of students who see their value in our economic society. Instruction in golf and tennis might better serve the purpose of raising the socioeconomic standard for a greater proportion of the student body, and at the same time contribute to a young person's physical health, prepare him for a worthy use of leisure time, and develop his individuality.

Many coaches have faced the problem of parental opposition to their youngsters' participation in competitive physical-contact sports. Parents state that this is not a preparation for life in the middle class in the United States. They want their children to be more interested in "schoolwork," in preparation for life, and in the values of the middle class.

Perhaps an examination of criteria will clarify the proper course for school policy in this matter of competitive athletics in the secondary schools. These criteria may be stated as follows:

1. Schools must support programs that contribute to the physical health of the majority of the student body.
2. Schools must support programs which build the democratic values of our society, such as co-operation, fair play, school spirit.
3. Schools must consider sports from the viewpoint of vocational training, worthy use of leisure, and traditional community interests.
4. Schools must support programs which coincide with student and community interests, ideals, and values.

The gymnasium is the community center. There was a time when coaches did not allow students to walk on the gymnasium floor with hard-soled shoes. Today, folding chairs are being set on these same floors. Some schools even permit roller skating on

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*One aspect of social class theory is the relationship between athletic prestige and socioeconomic status. The discussion of this aspect continues and extends somewhat briefly the larger scope of the previous article. We had not thought much about competitive athletics v. social caste until we received this manuscript. Maybe the thesis of the author is valid. We do not presume to know. But that his comments are intriguing, we readily admit. He is director of secondary education in the Massachusetts State Teachers College, Boston.*

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the gym floor. Is this a sacrilege? Does roller skating fit the above criteria? How does hiking or dancing fit into the criteria?

School administrators must consider the present state of athletics in their schools, and how they fit into the community program and into the socioeconomic goals of students and parents. A *Spotlight* report of

the National Association of Secondary-School Principals (March-April, 1958) stated that junior-high-school principals believed in competitive sports on that level. The point is how the majority of students and parents regard the program, and how effectively these physical-contact sports meet the values of our society.



## "Poor" Discipline

By R. G. WHITEMORE  
Reno, Nevada

"Poor discipline" is a comment quite often heard about our schools today. Layman, teacher, and critic are quite content to say, "Our schools have poor discipline." But there the agreement ends. Parents say, "The schools don't enforce discipline"; the teachers say, "No discipline at home"; ad infinitum. I have no argument with the point about discipline at home. I recently asked a class of ninth graders how many had received no punishment in the last three years. Eighteen of the thirty-nine raised their hands. This seems to illustrate that many parents feel a child in the sixth, seventh, or eighth grade is too old to be the recipient of punishment. This is certainly a debatable point, but let us agree that we (as school people) get the students.

A national survey shows that discipline is not considered to be "poor" by the strongest teachers, even in so-called "problem" schools. This, then, is my point: *Discipline in the classroom, in the department, in the school, is only as strong as the individual teacher makes it.*

As a classroom teacher and more so as an administrator, I am convinced that discipline problems are part and parcel of the teacher's responsibilities. The teacher who sends the most students to the office and moans that her students are discipline problems is the teacher who is doing the poorest job of teaching. (What a statement to make—there go my ears.)

I cannot remember the source of this statement, but I am certain it is true: "A genius without discipline cannot teach; a dedicated average person with discipline can do an excellent job of teaching." It seems, according to this statement, that we must have a great number of genius personalities in our classroom. Woe to us—this is not true. These people

are not of genius caliber; they just do not have discipline.

Believe it or not, I know teachers who are just too nice to the students. They try to reason with all the students, when some students respect only authority. One teacher recently told me, "Most really good teachers are a little bossy. Not that they have to show it, but the students know who is the teacher." I agree wholeheartedly.

This era of "permissiveness" in the classroom (wherein the students gather round and plan their work with the haloed teacher *standing by*) is as unnatural for school as it is for postgraduation life. In our great democracy we choose people who will lead us. We authorize great power to our leaders, but we then demand that they lead us. Woe to the party or personage that fails to lead. So it is with the teacher. The teacher must lead and, in so doing, it is inevitable that discipline be maintained.

Very frankly, many citizens have told me (as they must have told you) that the schools had better set their house in order. I am not advocating that we return to the cane and belt era. Few parents relish the thought of bodily punishment for their child, but many will accept it if they know the reason. But "discipline" and "bodily punishment" are not synonymous, since a good teacher who thoroughly explains class organization and standards will have few problems.

It is up to us—not the parents, society, or church—to maintain discipline in the classroom and the school. It is the job of the teacher. It would be a fallacy if I were to say one method would handle all situations. But we cannot escape by refusing to face the fact. *It is up to us!*

# SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS—

## *A Rejoinder*

By  
JACK I. BARDON

SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS, like other professional persons, have their unique problems. Because of mixed ancestry, there is confusion about where they belong. On the one hand, other psychologists in the experimental laboratories and college classrooms sometimes view them as distant relatives. They are perceived as educators with a psychological orientation, and although this combination is respectable enough, it is seen as on the fringe of the psychological profession. On the other hand, schoolmen sometimes see the school psychologist as a complete stranger. He is viewed as an intruder who is attempting to foist new and inappropriate ideas into a setting which he, as a psychological clinician, hardly understands at all.

Despite the fact that these extreme positions are held by some, school boards and administrators in increasing numbers are employing school psychologists. Colleges and universities in increasing numbers are organizing both doctoral and subdoctoral

graduate programs specifically to train psychologists to work in schools. Obviously, someone thinks these people serve a useful purpose!

The problem arises because of the lack of clarity in the professional standards, training and certification requirements, and job responsibilities of persons who have been called psychologists in the schools. (5) One can find school systems where a former teacher with six credit hours in mental hygiene and tests and measurements and some familiarity with the Stanford-Binet intelligence scale gives tests all day, records I.Q. scores on file cards, and is given the title "Psychologist" by his building principal. It is this individual who makes reputable, trained psychologists shudder. One can also find clinical psychologists with Ph.D.'s and extensive training in mental hospitals doing psychotherapy and writing elaborate clinical reports about children. These psychologists, out of touch with the everyday problems of the classroom teacher, may make teachers feel uncomfortable.

In addition, there are people in education who, for reasons not clearly understood, tend to find the psychologist a convenient scapegoat for the problems involved in present-day education. (6) They see psychologists as fostering juvenile delinquency, apologizing for the lack of respect some children have for adult authority, trying to solve problems with harmful overdoses of Tender Loving Care. These educators seem to feel that "back to the woodshed" and "the good old days" offer the best solutions.

This view is unfortunate because it tends

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### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Here is a response to the article by Gerald Rastery in the December, 1959, Clearing House. The author, who is school psychologist and co-ordinator of special services in the Princeton (New Jersey) public schools, does not agree with Mr. Rastery to put it mildly. In fact, Mr. Bardon was moved to write this reply because he objected to the generalizations in the December article, which he claims stem from a lack of knowledge about the work of competent psychologists.*

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to be based on an emotionally toned, personal view of the whole problem confronting our society. The complexity and fluidity of our culture with the resultant changes in values have presented the schools with educational difficulties of staggering proportions. No one method or group of persons can either solve or be held accountable for these happenings.

School psychologists, contrary to what these educators say, do not think all children with behavioral disturbances are "sick." They do not believe either, as some educators do, that "lazy," "bored," "spoiled," and "restless" are basic terms by which children can be classified. (6-211) Rather, they learn, if they are psychologists at all, that "a well-established scientific attitude of suspended judgment until all the facts are in is the order of the day." (4-157) Teachers need not be alarmed that "platoons of school psychologists" will invade the educational world. (6) A ratio of one school psychologist for every 800 to 1,200 children is held to be pretty near ideal, and only a handful of school systems come even close to this ratio. (9) One psychologist for every 2,000 children is thought to be adequate and most schools do not approximate this ratio either. (3)

The disparity among psychological functions and training requirements which has promoted the misinterpretation of the role of the psychologist in the schools is showing some signs of closure. In 1954 a conference of distinguished professional persons was held at West Point, New York, in order to clarify and point some directions for school psychology. (2) The division of school psychology of the American Psychological Association, believed by some to be among the fastest growing divisions in the association (7), has published an important document outlining the various functions the competent psychologist might be able to fulfill and has given illustrations of how psychologists actually do operate in school systems of different sizes and population descriptions. (9) National, state, and local groups

of school psychologists have been organized and are attempting to raise professional standards as well as study problems of mutual concern. Interestingly enough, discussions frequently center on such questions as report writing for teachers, the way psychology can most effectively serve education (8), and psychologist-educator team approaches to meeting the educational needs of exceptional children. (1)

Although school psychologists will continue to emphasize different activities as they attempt to meet the needs of the particular school system employing them, certain basic roles seem to be emerging. Increased attention is being given to what has been termed preventative mental health efforts. Here, the school psychologist works with those who work with children—the teacher, the parent, the administrator. He participates in and develops research programs aimed at assisting the school to solve basic and applied educational problems. He helps develop programs for special groups—the retarded, the gifted, the emotionally and socially maladjusted—and provides information through tests and observations necessary for successfully carrying out such programs. He assists other persons in pupil personnel services—the guidance counselors, school socialworkers, speech therapists, and so on, by consultation and individual analysis of children. He works as a member of a school team of which he is but one part. Always, he uses his training and clinical skills to make the school system even better than it is. He is oriented in philosophy and training toward the school, with experience in classroom observation and work with teachers, if not as a teacher. He is a psychologist trained to work in schools.

This approach is not just a dream. It is already taking place. (3) Many school psychologists find themselves moving in this direction.

The fear that psychologists will overrun the schools and influence them disproportionately, to the detriment of the educa-

tional system, is unfounded. It is earnestly hoped that school administrators will assist psychology and themselves by insisting on high standards of competence when they hire psychologists.

It would also be of great value if those who easily find fault with this profession—or any profession for that matter—on the basis of one or a very few experiences, tried to learn the fine art of withholding opinion until the facts are in.

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## The Pupil and the Teacher

By GALEN M. JARVIS  
Des Plaines, Illinois

A classroom of youngsters seat themselves unceremoniously into place; then, with varying degrees of alacrity, direct their attention toward the teacher. The range of ability is great; interests are diverse and unusual; knowledge is a companion to some and an unwilling partner with others. Their disposition to inquire varies on a continuum from abject negativism through passive resistance to active curiosity.

Now, what is the task of the teacher? To do something which will somehow change the situation.

Though subject matter, for which the school assumes responsibility, differs among teachers, there are basic tasks which every instructor of youngsters should emphasize in order to have an effective impact on their intellectual development. Is it enough to spread before these young people the historical precedences of past generations, then add the scientific achievements of man to date? Is it adequate to indoctrinate them with the provincial customs which regulate social life and instill the generally accepted conventions of our cultural heritage?

The habits of critical reflection, a belief in intelli-

gence and individual initiative, a widening realization of the possible hopes of knowledge and good will, a disciplined approach to those problems which everyone must resolve in life—these also are the tasks of the teacher.

Further, the good teacher will generate conflicts between old habits and new solutions, then hasten to make the students feel adequate by giving them a purpose, a goal of direction, a plan of action. Young scholars should learn early the immutable concept that one does not find fixed dogmas to explain man's uncertainties.

The teacher can change the situation by directing youngsters' energies toward a free exploration of the possibilities in learning the subject. Each teacher will have changed the situation in a desirable fashion if he has rendered his subject more meaningful, more alive, more integrated, and more challenging.

Two compelling objectives of the effective teacher are: (1) to inculcate independence of thought in a context of social awareness, and (2) to allow an ever widening circle of individual responsibility.

# Attitudes Toward Science Teaching

By THOMAS M. WEISS

MORE THAN TWO YEARS HAVE PASSED since Russia startled the world with Sputnik I.

Stimulated by their success Russian scientists have now repeated their performance many times. Not only did our ideological foe put the first man-made satellite into orbit around the sun but they have photographed the dark side of the moon, thus adding to man's store of knowledge. To what degree they are outdistancing us in science is debatable, but that they have outdistanced us in space exploration and rocketry cannot be denied. If it can be assumed that progress in space science is indicative of progress in other sciences, perhaps we must do more than criticize American education. Perhaps we must do more than raise taxes, or fire generals, or vote the Republicans out of office. Perhaps we need to take a long and hard look at our attitudes toward science and science teaching.

Many schools are indeed teaching science but many are not. Those that are not may be teaching the facts of science, which are important, but not the methods of science,

which are more important. To know that penicillin is derived from molds is a significant scientific fact but the technique of discovering this fact is more fundamental. To know that cowpox vaccine can prevent smallpox is an easily memorized fact of science, but it is not science. The method by which it was discovered is science of a more profound nature.

Increasing the number of mathematics or science courses will not necessarily either increase the number of young people entering scientific work or qualify them to do so. It may do both if those teaching these courses devote as much time to the inculcation of method as to the content.

The methods of science are easily instilled in young children. More easily, as a matter of fact, than in adults. The longer one believes a nonscientific fact the harder it is to eliminate. Race and religious prejudice are examples. So difficult is it to alter a long-held falsehood that many "educated" adults sincerely believe in one type of discrimination or another. Sociological, psychological, and anthropological facts are rationalized in such a way that the old false-to-fact notions can persist. Children of elementary- or secondary-school age have not lived with unfounded "truths" as long and are thus more educable. Children have not yet learned all the "tricks" of rationalizing and tend to accept new evidence more easily. The evidence they accept, however, must be more than just words of authority. It must be evidence that they can experience firsthand. Children usually will not deny what they see but many adults will. Children will ask "Why?" and if given the chance will attempt to find out. Many times adults frown upon this, particularly if the question impinges on one of their "dearly held truths." *But new knowledge does not arise unless we*

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*An inquiring mind is basic to real learning. If the student in the exact sciences is encouraged to raise questions, to test hypotheses, to examine the reliability of evidence, to verify sources of information, he can progress in determining the validity of subject matter. If, on the other hand, he finds it necessary to compete for marks by memorizing content, it is doubtful that he learns as much. How can we teachers conduct our lessons to nourish the spirit of inquiry in students and not to deny it? This brings us to the rationale in this article. The author is associate professor of education, Arizona State University at Tempe.*

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question the old. Galileo questioned the "truths" of Aristotle. Darwin questioned the Book of Genesis; Pasteur, the French Academy. Einstein questioned Euclid and Dalton. Science is concerned with new answers to old questions and the methods by which new answers can be found.

Where in elementary or secondary school do we encourage the young to seek new answers? Where do we teach the techniques of inquiry? Are teachers so concerned with providing answers that they minimize the importance of questioning? Facts, of course, are not only important but are needed to ask meaningful questions. Facts as an end however are probably less fruitful than facts as a means to further questioning. Probing the unknown, with the known as a base, is science at its best. How is this pursuit taught? It is not taught by memorization or by repetition of what has already been done. It may be taught by (1) allowing questions to be asked, (2) structuring the questions in such a way that they admit to an answer, (3) developing a series of hypotheses (guesses), (4) controlling the variables, (5) collecting the data, (6) analyzing the data, (7) checking the tentative conclusions, and (8) asking more questions. This procedure is not restricted to a course called science. It is a reasonable operation in any class as well as in daily life.

Suppose a high-school class in social studies is studying different races. Some member of the group asks, "Are negroes lowering the moral standards of America?" The teacher could answer the question in terms of his or her bias and be done with it. Many teachers would. The answer, however, would necessarily be as vague as the question.

But a teacher interested in developing scientific attitudes in her students would accept the question as asked but would encourage the child to clarify the question by asking, "What do you mean by moral standards?" It might mean several things and each of these would pose a different ques-

tion and a different answer. If the child were to say, "Well, do they have more babies out of wedlock than white people do?" then the questions must be asked, "Where?" and "When?" After these questions are decided, precise answers can be obtained if the student is guided to proper source material.

Calling attention of students to the fact that only precise questions beget precise answers is a first step in teaching the methods of science. A large number of teachers who feel they must cover a certain number of pages in a book may shy away from such a procedure because it is time consuming, but in so doing they are violating scientific principles. The question elementary and secondary teachers should ask of themselves is, "What is the evidence that 'covering the book' changes the behavior of students?" Some will argue that the evidence of our lag in science indicates that covering the book has not produced a generation of scientifically oriented adults and perhaps not even a generation of "educated" adults. Others, of course, will insist that we lag in science precisely because we have not covered the "books." Perhaps the "truth" lies somewhere in between.

In addition to helping children develop more precise questions, the teacher might find it wise to reserve part of each class week to questions that have no answers in the book. An example of this kind of question could be: "Do 2 and 2 always equal 4?" Encourage children to find instances which dispute this mathematical "truth." Demonstrate that 2 quarts of alcohol plus 2 quarts of water equal less than 4 quarts. Such a procedure not only emphasizes the preciseness of mathematics in the abstract but allows for correlating mathematics with science. Another advantage is possible from such questions. Teachers can point out that 2 doesn't always equal 2 as is "true" with \$2.00 in 1939 and \$2.00 in 1960. Here the teacher can introduce students to the basic principles of relativity as well as to some basic principles of economics. Some will con-



tend that such methodology will confuse students, but this writer in more than ten years of teaching at elementary, secondary, and college levels has proved differently. If my observations have been correct, students become better critical thinkers and more receptive to the challenge of mathematics and science.

A long hard look at our attitudes toward science and science teaching may not only increase the amount of these subjects taught but may encourage teachers to try a new methodology. There is a need for those who know the answers and an even greater need for those who know the proper questions to ask.



## Extracurricular Activities—the Big Squeeze

Studies of the loads of teachers reveal that as much as one-third of their total time may be absorbed in extracurricular activities. The curricular load of teachers has not, however, been reduced as the extracurriculum has been added. As a result, either the teacher has had added to his total load the amount of time devoted to the extracurriculum, or he spends a smaller proportion of his time in the central curricular duties of teaching—unfortunate occurrence in either event. Probably some of both of these undesirable alternatives have been followed. Foreign exchange teachers often comment upon the heavy extracurricular load carried by American teachers.

An excessive extracurricular load has led teachers to begin to pressure for two kinds of adjustment: extra pay for these so-called extra duties, or relief from curricular responsibilities. School districts may follow either or both practices. Compelling arguments both for and against may be heard on both sides.

The volume and intensity of discussion attest that the issue has not been resolved. The bargaining of teachers for extra pay for extra duty, while understandable, has had the unfortunate result of placing teaching in the same category as labor in its negotiations with management. This works against the realization of full professional status for teaching.

The public needs to know that teachers are not, in these discussions of extra pay for extra duty, trying to discover how they can do less work for more money. They are responding to the powerful pressures that have accumulated over the years, espe-

cially as a result of the addition of the extracurriculum, which prohibit them from performing their main function which is to teach pupils worthwhile basic subject matter in a manner that enables pupils to develop a mastery of the material by independent thought rather than by rote. The two main avenues for helping teachers who have assumed extracurricular duties have been extra pay and reduced academic load. Added avenues that ought to be further considered are (1) over-all reduction in the total amount of time and energy directed to extracurricular activities in the school; (2) more student-directed activities; and (3) shift in supervision of the extracurriculum from the shoulders of teachers to nonteaching personnel, both paid and unpaid. Especially in a time of teacher shortage should the full energies of teachers be directed to teaching.

Both in hiring and advancing teachers in schools today, administrators place high premium on ability and willingness to participate in the extracurriculum. . . . The issue becomes how so to change circumstances that priority may be given to teachers who wish to devote themselves to teaching. This is a question easier to raise than to answer. But a good answer will not be forthcoming until high school principals resolve to think even harder about how the problem may be resolved in their schools. Today the rewards to teachers of additional money, administrative approval, and professional advancement, push mainly in the extracurricular direction. —Editorial in the *California Journal of Secondary Education*.

# What About Discipline?

By GEORGE M. KRALL

"WHAT ABOUT DISCIPLINE?" asked a new teacher in a junior high school of about nine hundred pupils during an orientation conference a few days before the school term began.

The teacher was unaware of the reach or depth of his question. Had he been, he probably would have worded it differently. For instance, as a future teacher of social studies, he would see the absurdity of asking the question, "What about social studies?"

It was apparent, though, what relation to discipline the teacher had in mind. He would be teaching in a state where corporal punishment is illegal, so the teacher wished to know, "What may I do to children who do not co-operate or who do not obey my instructions?" This penalty phase of discipline is of interest to all teachers and has its place in the over-all pattern of discipline

in a school system, but it is not of first importance except as a stopgap in maintaining order until the broader principles and objectives can be explored by the teacher.

Discipline has to be carefully taught from year to year, to paraphrase a lyric in a popular screen play, just as social studies and mathematics must have continuous teaching. It should have a positive approach, which will make less of the negative "don'ts" necessary. It cannot be taught by the laying down of a set of rules in one or a few lessons, any more than science can be mastered by presentation of a few principles. There must be persistent attention to a definite course of guidance involving acceptable principles in discipline.

What then must a new teacher know to become a successful disciplinarian?

He must be aware first of the fact that the goal in a system of government which seeks the greatest freedom of the individual in the pursuit of personal liberties and satisfactions, limited only by the rights of other individuals engaged in similar pursuits, is self-discipline. The national ideal is to have the children grow up with built-in monitors which select the proper choice of action that is meaningful to the individual but does not thwart others in their well-ordered activities. These ethical principles are to be as much a part of the children's code of behavior as habits of cleanliness or the acceptable social amenities developed in a cultured family. The pattern of discipline must be flexible enough to permit the child to learn by making mistakes, to have the discussion of these mistakes in an objective manner free from ridicule or shame, and to see that the mistakes are corrected to the reasonable satisfaction of the parties concerned. Mistakes treated in this manner are less likely to be repeated.

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*A recent study by Roy C. Bryan, of Western Michigan University analyzes the competencies of twelve secondary-school teachers as disclosed by student judgment on a ten-item scale. The seventy-five-page report of the study is titled "Twelve Teachers and Their Effects on Students." Graphic profiles of the twelve, all of them experienced teachers, showed only one excellent in discipline. Three of them were rated medium, and eight were poor in classroom control. If the findings of this study are valid, they may be the reason for the consistent and pervading interest in articles on discipline by teachers, patrons, and pupils. CH is interested in manuscripts that describe policies on discipline and classroom control. Hence we are publishing this overview of discipline written by the former vice-principal of Junior High School No. 4, Trenton, New Jersey.*

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If a growing child desists from fighting, lying, cheating, or other common antisocial acts due to the fear of being caught, then his behavior will be governed by what he thinks he can "get away with." If the child's behavior during the growing years to the age of eighteen or twenty is fashioned by the principle of strict obedience without question, with severe penalties for digression of any degree, then one of two outcomes is apt to be the result.

The first outcome is that the child is likely to have an explosion and thereafter take his fling willy-nilly. This is somewhat parallel to the provincial custom in which a boy is subject to his father's will and wishes until he is strong enough to beat his father. When he has proved himself in this manner, he is free to do as he pleases.

The second probable outcome is that the child will become submissive. When he reaches maturity, he is not ready to be on his own. He is confused and unsure of himself. He turns readily to some mastermind to be told what to do. The composite personality of a significant percentage of the population trained in this manner will make it easy for some demagogue to take over the direction of the affairs of state. This is not the American ideal of government. The teacher must be sensitive to the national goal to be achieved.

Another factor which the new teacher must consider in developing his ideas of discipline is the school in which he happens to be teaching. Each school is a body different from other schools in the same city or state.

The personality of the school is determined by the type of pupils and their home backgrounds, the policy of the administration, the *esprit de corps* of the faculty, and the manner in which the curriculums meet the needs and ambitions of the pupils. The various interwoven strands which compose the behavior of the school organism often appear contradictory when studied separately.

In a junior high school within the author's experience the pupils moved from class to class in single file on the right side of the corridor. There were few laughing voices. Teacher monitors were ready to stop any conversation that might develop. Disorder developed frequently when teachers stepped out of their classrooms. It was not uncommon for certain classes to upset a regular teacher and become uncontrollable. Yet, when the regular teachers were absent these same classes pleaded to conduct the lessons themselves. Due to a shortage of substitute teachers the request was sometimes granted. Commonly they would choose as a leader one of their peers with a record of misbehavior, but for a period of three successive days they would function in an orderly manner. Thereafter, the novelty having worn off, other arrangements had to be made.

In another school there is a lot more informality between periods. There are only two limitations: that conduct be free from rowdiness or danger to others and that the pupil be in his next classroom on time. School property is much less closely guarded than in the former school, yet less damage results. Teachers can occasionally step out of their classrooms and the groups continue work in an orderly manner. However, if the regular teacher is absent, the news is spread abroad and the pupils appear in class ready for a lark. Substitute teachers may have a rough time until the administrative personnel is notified.

The teacher must become steeped in the behavior patterns of the school and note the incongruities that exist in order to become effective as a group leader.

Finally, the new teacher must develop a sense of judgment which will enable him to foretell when a line of action in handling behavior problems will benefit the group with the least damage to the personality of the individual in whom the problem may be focused. The teacher will be constantly confronted with alternatives demanding deci-

sions. For the benefit of the group should an example be made of John? How will this affect John? Should Susan be separated from the class to prevent the class from deteriorating? Will Susan's attitude change for the better if she is separated from the group temporarily or permanently? Regardless of the decision at the time, the teacher has to influence John and Susan in a positive manner in order to help them reach the goal of self-discipline which is the ultimate for every member of the group.

Should there be a published list of definite penalties for various misdemeanors so that the children may know what to expect? What will happen if an exception is made and the automatic penalty is withheld? In a certain school a teacher met a girl in the corridor at a time when the girl should have been in a classroom. "Where do you come from?" asked the teacher. "From the lavatory," replied the girl. The odor of cigarette smoke was strong on the girl's breath. "You have been smoking," said the teacher. In this school any pupil apprehended in the act of smoking is automatically suspended. Both the pupil and the teacher were aware of this rule. The girl faced the alternatives of denial, of claiming that she smoked before coming to school, or of confession with the probable consequences. After some hesitation she said, "Yes, I was smoking, but I promise you I'll never smoke in school again." The teacher weighed the situation carefully. "All right," she said finally, "I'll accept your promise. Sometime I'll check to see whether you have kept it." There were no witnesses to the above episode. Before the end of the year the teacher checked. She found no reference to a smoking charge in the girl's record. She sent for the girl and questioned her. "I have not smoked in school since the day I promised you I wouldn't," replied the student. Could more have been accomplished in promoting self-discipline by demanding the customary pound of flesh?

If the above conversation had taken place in the presence of a group, would the teacher have been wise to follow the same course of action? Hardly, unless she was able to explain some extenuating circumstances and receive from the group an indication that exceptional treatment had their approval also.

The new teacher will grow rapidly in his ability to discipline if he plans as intently for positive guidance through the group as he plans for future lessons in social studies. The following situations are typical of those that will be constantly confronting him. What effect will the holiday spirit have on Sharon? How will Fred react to the change of program for tomorrow? Perhaps Tom should have a special duty during the trip we have planned for Thursday so that the responsibility will keep him from making a nuisance of himself. In order to enjoy an automobile ride through the country you need not only a comfortable car with a smoothly functioning engine and a perfect steering mechanism, but you may also need to tighten some bolts here and there in order to remove the rattles. With well-thought-out plans of discipline and proper techniques in executing the charted direction of the class, the group leader with a sensitivity for the probable trouble spots before they happen can keep discipline flexible and intellectually challenging. It is preferred to the course of waiting until something happens and then establishing an automatic penalty in the hope that a forewarned child will be a good child.

"What about discipline?" Discipline is a highly complex and complicated business. The new teacher must establish his ultimate goals, soak up the composite behavior traits of the school and develop the finesse of teaching the individual through the group. All of this rests on a goodly measure of common sense fortified by power drawn from the patience of Job, the daring of Moses, and the wisdom of Solomon.

# The Professor's Shock Treatment

By JESSIE HUDSON

AT NINE O'CLOCK one beautiful September morning, I sat among nervously twittering freshmen in a beginning literature class. It was the first period of our first day in college and we didn't know what to expect. At 9:01 our instructor arrived. He strode into the room like Zeus descending from a storm cloud, clapped his books on the desk, and glowered upon us all. He seemed to loom over us—six-feet of brawny young man with a whip!

The whip was his tongue. He lashed into a lecture on our expected inadequacies. He criticized our previous education; said we had been "mollycoddled and pampered by spoon-feeding"; that we had had all the answers handed to us, and had never been made to think for ourselves. He deplored the general lack of intellectual curiosity on the part of today's college students, and bemoaned the growth of our universities into "trade schools" to which students come, not for learning, but for "a better union card."

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Logically we must have a yes before we can have a no. If there is no positive statement to react to, how can we point out its shortcomings? And yet, in teaching it is possible to proceed inductively from a negative instance to an affirmative position. For example, a teacher of English might introduce a unit on sentence structure by citing a poorly constructed sentence and then asking, "What is wrong with it?" Or, a professor might start out by being hypercritical in order to upset the student's notions of procedure and then develop a more balanced and positive frame of criticism. This appears to be the experience of the teacher in this account. The author is a resident of Plymouth, Michigan.*

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He warned us that he used the Socratic method of teaching and would expect us to provide the answers. He reminded us that we had chosen to come to college and that it was up to us to learn. He emphasized that he would expect us to use whole sentences and to spell every word correctly.

After the first feeling of fright wore off, I began to take heart. I didn't know about the others, but I had come to school especially for intellectual stimulation, could spell, use whole sentences, and certainly knew how to read!

At the next meeting of the class I was ready. I had studied the assignment, Ernest Hemingway's "The Killers." I had memorized the names of the characters, the incidents, and plot. I sat cockily waiting to answer all questions. Our 180 lbs. of Socratic method arrived, once more with a clap of thunder, and began to prod and pummel us with questions—not about the details we had so carefully memorized but about the meaning of the story and how it might apply to us. My heart sank. I didn't know any answers. I didn't really know how to read!

Apparently none of the other freshmen knew either! They didn't know how to answer his questions any more than I did. Since I am the product of an earlier system of education I don't really know what today's secondary-school teachers try to instill into their students. But I do know that not any of the forty or more freshmen in that room were prepared for a class in college literature. They read, as I did, for plot and characterization; for amusement or "escape." They did not know how to relate what they read to situations in life around them. They had never considered what lay behind the author's words or wondered whether his criticism of our society is true



or false and whether it might be still true today. I found, too, in the weeks to come that they were not well prepared in writing. Their sentences were faulty and their spelling atrocious. They were a representative group of high-school graduates, mostly from this area, but this area ranks high in the educational standards of the nation. I could only deduce that our professor's opinion of elementary and secondary education was correct. Their teachers, throughout their twelve years of schooling, had been too easy.

But most of us soon learned what we were expected to look for in the books we read. We began to identify ourselves with the characters and to look for similar situations in our own lives. When we reread "The Killers" we saw the seriousness of the conditions which nurture the amoral behavior of the hired assassins for whom the short story is named. We recognized isolationism in the "head in the sand" attitude of the restaurant owner who chose just not to think about the fate of Ole Andresen.

We also learned either to admire our instructor for stirring up our little gray cells and making us think, or to hate him fervently; either way he shook all of us out of our complacency.

Among the many discoveries we made that fall were the seven mortal sins: pride, envy, lust, sloth, wrath, gluttony, and avarice. We found them everywhere—in the stories we read, in ourselves, in our society, and in our world. The most common of the sins, we also found, is pride. The most prevalent aspect of pride is complacency, the very complacency in which we wallowed that first September morning when we began our "shock treatment."

I suppose our instructor might be criticized for his teaching methods. They were

rough and maybe "shocking," but they did get results. He never relaxed his vigilance over our English. He marked off severely for errors in spelling and grammar and we had to improve in self-defense. But if we got through to the heart of a story and digested its "message" he would read our papers in class, then we would sail through the rest of the day on a cloud.

And when he read to us we listened enthralled. The stories came alive. When he read parts of Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*, we saw the exploited natives crawling into the woods to die like animals; we would feel the evil corruption of the jungle's dark green magic. Toward the end of *The Odyssey*, when Odysseus' aged father, Laertes, threw his spear at the advancing enemy, with one swift movement our teacher threw an imaginary spear across the room, and we saw that spear quivering in the sun and felt the powerful drama of this single courageous gesture.

If we had problems about our work, and sought him out, we discovered him to be extremely courteous, kind, and very much concerned with each of us as individuals. It was his very compassion for man that made him so angry. He was, like Socrates, a self-appointed gadfly who felt it his duty to prick the conscience of mankind and to make of his students thinking, self-critical, nonconforming adults.

I looked forward to taking further courses from this dramatic dynamo but he was off at the end of that semester to tilt at other windmills. I was left to seek stimulation at quieter fountains.

But the lessons we learned about spelling, grammar, and most of all about reading, have stood me in good stead for the rest of my college career.



A fellow teacher has said it this way, "Must we not read more widely, think more creatively, pursue knowledge more enthusiastically, experience life more fully and vitally, and touch life more places if we are to be to students what they have the right to expect us to be?"—JOSEPHINE KREMER in the *Minnesota Journal of Education*.



# More to Know About Hawaii

By FRANK T. ARONE

THE WORLD is in a state of constant change. In this twentieth century, evidences of this lie in the fact that men conquer disease, leaders rise and fall, the death of colonialism draws near, and nations include new territories as states. The school is the only institution which is almost universally attended by the youth of the world. This living structure must therefore provide the understandings and attitudes which are essential for the assimilation of these changes.

In the case of Hawaii, our most recent state, we of the United States must be informed about the new component which aids in making up our nation. One need not be reminded that although we are in an age when there is a quest for world unity, understanding within nations must be present before it can spread without.

Since Hawaii as a state is new in the history of the United States, it is not fully contained within the covers of a textbook. Or even if it is, treatment of it with brevity and

colorlessness should challenge the teacher to find free and inexpensive materials which will enrich the curriculum. Many teachers of various subject areas in high schools as well as those in elementary schools have expressed the urgent need for materials on Hawaii. This list of free materials has therefore been assembled.

Available from CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF HONOLULU, Dillingham Building, Honolulu 13, Hawaii:

1. *What It's Like in Hawaii* (1959).

This is an excellent four-page folder which gives a brief summary of the living accommodations, cost of living, government, taxes, churches, schools, motor vehicles, pets, plants and birds, newspapers, airlines, the city of Honolulu, weather, and the working conditions of the islands. Good for junior and senior high school.

2. *Hawaii the 50th State, Facts and Figures* (1959).

This is an excellent sixteen-page booklet on the crops, the expenditures in Hawaii, weather, taxes, population, banks, transportation, and other areas. It is arranged in statistical tables. Special attention should be given to the back cover which gives brief statistical statements on the economic, political, and social situation in Hawaii. It is called "Hawaii at a Glance." Good for junior and senior high school.

3. *Who's Who in Government, State of Hawaii* (1959)

This excellent twenty-page booklet gives information on the life and background of the governor, United States senators, United States representatives, state senators and representatives. It also provides pictures of

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*We are the mainland, say the residents of Hawaii. They are the islanders. That the mainlanders should know more about these islands is obvious: what their resources are, how the people manage their cultural differences, what kind of schools they have and how they organize and administer them. We don't know whether the author has been in Hawaii. But that is really not important. What is significant is the compilation he has made of teaching materials on our State No. 50. He is a regular contributor to The Clearing House and teaches at Haverstraw-Stoney Point High School, Haverstraw, New York.*

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officials. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

Available from HAWAIIAN PINEAPPLE COMPANY, LTD., P. O. Drawer 3380, Honolulu, Hawaii:

4. *The Story of Pineapple from Hawaii* (1959).

This seven-section folder gives in brief but concise form the history of the industry, the scientific side of the industry, and life in a plantation community. Good for junior and senior high school.

5. *The Story of Pineapple* (June, 1951).

This forty-page booklet gives a thorough account of the history, the pineapple plant, the preparation of the soil, planting, cultivation, harvesting, canning, distribution, and employees. The work is graphic since it starts with the pineapple plant as seen by a seventeenth century artist and continues throughout with photographs. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

6. *Dole, a Record of Your Visit to Hawaiian Pineapple Co., Ltd.*

This sixteen-page booklet gives information and photographs on the pineapple industry in Hawaii. Excellent for children at the elementary-school level.

Available from MATSON NAVIGATION COMPANY, 230 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago:

(Many brochures on travel to Hawaii may be gotten from this source. Although they give much data on costs and methods of travel, they provide a rich source of colorful pictures of Hawaii. One such folder is the following.)

7. *Hawaii—Cook's Escorted Cruise Tours* (1959).

This folder, prepared by the Cook's World Travel Service, gives the individual an idea of the nature of a Hawaiian cruise

with its beautifully colored pictures. It also gives the individual an idea of a twenty-three-day tour, and the places of interest to tourists.

A brief map as well as the cost of such a trip is included.

Available from HAWAII VISITORS BUREAU, 2051 Kalakaua Avenue, Honolulu, Hawaii:

8. *Hawaii, U.S.A.*

An excellent folder on history, government, geography, products, volcanoes, flowers, and folkways of Hawaii.

9. *Hawaii* (1959).

A pamphlet prepared by the Department of Interior, Office of Territories, gives history and government, geography, transportation, climate, population, business and industry, agriculture, natural resources, water, people, education, recreation, and other topics.

The thirty-page work is excellent for junior and senior high school.

10. *Hawaii, U.S.A.*

A special newspaper edition and articles of the Waikiki Beach Press, which is done in co-operation with the Hawaii Visitors Bureau, includes a pictorial map, islands, places of interest, weather, Hawaii's melting pot, democracy in the islands, holidays and recreation, industries, transportation, and other topics.

This fifteen-page work is excellent for junior and senior high school.

11. *The Valley Island Maui of the Hawaiian Group.*

It includes a map and highlights of the island. Excellent for junior and senior high.

12. *The Garden Island Kauai of the Hawaiian Group.*

It covers the same information as for Maui, above. Excellent for junior and senior high schools.

13. *The Orchid Island Hawaii of the Hawaiian Group.*

Same information as for Maui, above. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

14. *The Aloha Island Oahu of the Hawaiian Group.*

Same information as for Maui, above. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

Available from ALOHA AIRLINES, King at Bethel Street, Honolulu, Hawaii:

15. *Hawaii, Vacation with Aloha Airlines* (1959).

This is an excellent folder which provides a synopsis of Kauai, Maui, and Hawaii. It provides an eighteen-by-twelve inch map in color of the islands, upon which are also shown places of interest, airports, products, and so on. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

Available from HAWAIIAN AIRLINES, Honolulu, Hawaii:

16. *Route Map Hawaiian Airlines.*

This is an excellent colored map of the islands, which includes the main roads, airlines, mountains, and so on. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

Available from HONOLULU AUTOMOBILE CLUB, 717 Bishop Street, Honolulu, Hawaii:

17. *Travelers' Guide to Honolulu* (1958-59) (39th year of publication).

This seventy-two-page booklet gives information on the Hawaiian language, important events in Hawaii, city of Honolulu, population, sports, sugar, coffee, pineapple, flowers, fish, and so on. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

18. *Map and Guide to Honolulu.*

This map, prepared by the advertising department of the Honolulu Rapid Transit Company, gives minute details of the city of

Honolulu. This material may be obtained from the Honolulu Automobile Club or the Hawaiian Visitors Bureau. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

19. *Island of Hawaii* (revised, 1955).

A 12-inch by 15-inch map of Hawaii with main highways, trails, volcanoes, bays, and so on.

20. *See Honolulu and Oahu by Bus.*

This gives an excellent map of the city, as well as the places of interest and the history of the city. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

21. *What to Wear in Hawaii.*

This brief pamphlet includes island-designed and island-made fashions. Also included are the fashions of men and women tourists. Excellent for junior- and senior-high-school use.

Available from UNITED AIR LINES (School and College Service), 5958 South Cicero Avenue, Chicago 38, Illinois:

22. *Your Hawaii.*

This twelve-page booklet describes the ideal climate, a colorful people, Hawaiian language, educational opportunities, the native music, history, geography, economy and industry, interesting facts, and transportation. Excellent for junior and senior high school.

Available from HAWAIIAN SUGAR PLANTERS' ASSOCIATION, Alexander and Baldwin Building, P.O. Box 2450, Honolulu, Hawaii:

23. *Believe It or Don't.*

A four-page illustrated folder giving startling facts about the sugar industry, the billions of gallons of water needed to grow Hawaii's sugar, how the annual sugar payroll would support Hawaii County for fourteen years, and so on. Excellent for junior and senior high school as well as elementary school.

24. *Sugar's Role in Hawaii's Cosmopolitan Make-up.*

This is a small but excellently illustrated poster on the relative numbers of the different racial groups who came to work for sugar and the years in which they first arrived.

25. *Hawaiian Sugar.*

This pamphlet gives the history of sugar since 1935, today's \$56,000,000 sugar payroll, the mechanization of the industry. Good for junior and senior high school.

26. *Ten Major Steps in the Growing and Harvesting of Sugar Cane.*

This pamphlet, which is simply illustrated, gives the ten steps of the growing and harvesting process. Good for junior and senior high school.

27. *The Ten Steps in Converting Sugar Cane into Raw Sugar.*

This simple but well-illustrated pamphlet gives the complete sugar process.

28. *Sugar Cane Producing Areas of Hawaiian Islands.*

This gives the major sugar plantation companies which are located on the four major islands. On the side of the map is an excellent chart showing in graph form Hawaii's income from goods sent to the mainland.

29. *Experiment Station, HSPA—Research Center for Hawaiian Sugar.*

This folder explains the work being done in the research of sugar. Included is an excellent historical time line chart, entitled "Sugar Products in Hawaii 1835-1958."

30. *Pamphlets.*

*Facts about Hawaiian Sugar—Oahu.* Includes map and specific information on sugar.

*Facts about Hawaiian Sugar—Hawaii.* Information of the same nature.

*Facts about Hawaiian Sugar—Kauai.* Information of the same nature.

*Facts about Hawaiian Sugar—Maui.* Information of the same nature.

Available from BISHOP NATIONAL BANK OF HAWAII, P.O. Box 3200, Honolulu 1, Hawaii:

31. *The First Hundred Years—Bishop National Bank of Hawaii (1858-1958).*

This is a twelve-page book on the history of one of Hawaii's main banks. It has excellent illustrations and pictures. Excellent for junior- and senior-high-school use. (Second printing, 1959.)

32. *The Islands of Hawaii (1959).*

An eight-page booklet which gives a description and pictures of the islands. The photography is by Ansel Adams and text by Edward Joseting. The booklet has been done in commemoration of the one-hundredth anniversary of the Bishop National Bank of Hawaii.

## Attitude Affects Learning

The attitude of a child toward his teacher can also hamper the learning process. If a child hates his teacher, or is irritated by his teacher's voice or some mannerism, he may really be unable to perform at his optimum level. Such instances, usually referred to as a "personality conflict," are distressing to everyone. In spite of such occurrences, teachers do not need to feel that they must woo their pupils and win them over to doing good work by being

"friendly." Children react to genuineness in an adult, and pupil polls have repeatedly shown a preference for the teacher who is on the strict side—a good disciplinarian.

But where a child's grades begin to fall, the alert teacher can well ask whether a deteriorating teacher-pupil relationship is the cause. If so, it is often something that can easily be remedied.—CYRIL R. MILL in *Educational Leadership*.

# BUT—CAN THEY WRITE?

By GEORGE G. DAWSON

The questions asked on these quiz programs were either historical, scientific, a phase of literature, a phase of business, or about sports, and the common layman can only touch slightly on these subjects, therefore it was educational to them to listen to this material, and also quizzes, as well as any other type of television program, is entertaining to the public.

THE GEM APPEARING ABOVE is but one small sample of the type of writing that college students are submitting to their instructors. Are those of us who demand some kind of standards for written work fighting a lonely and hopeless battle? It would seem so. The passage quoted above was written by a student who is a junior in a teacher-training college. Twenty-four errors in English were made by the same student in a paper four-and-one-half pages in length. Another student in the same class took the prize by making seventeen errors in *one page!*

If fourteen years of schooling can produce nothing better than this gross illiteracy, then indeed it is time for a change. Although the students in the class in question were warned that incorrect English would reduce their grades, not a single paper was free from serious errors. Not being a "purist" in the matter of English grammar, I counted only those errors which even the

most liberal of teachers would be forced to correct. Even students preparing to be English teachers make unbelievably ridiculous errors and rebel at being required to write correctly in any course not bearing a title and number from the English department.

A random sampling of the papers submitted by students in a social studies class of thirty-four revealed a dozen passages as "brilliant" as the one quoted above. A few more examples, I am sure, will suffice to convince the most skeptical reader that something is rotten in the ivory tower.

They may rely in different measure upon schools and churches, private homes and public institutions, on apprenticeships and trade schools, on parks and schools years: on different ways and means, in short, out of dozens and hundreds which produce education.

The powers of the parent organization are limited to: Making public any case of corruption, demanding that the union in question make reforms for existing abuses or if this can not be carried out then the dispossessing of the union from the AFL-CIO vowed that they would cooperate with the McClellan committee, and further stated that any labor official pleading the fifth amendment would have no right to continue in office.

Megaarden says that this may be so, but it is by no means certain—by no means as certain as the critics, especially [sic] the lay critics and how they assume this to be.

Huge sums of money are spent to create such good will and publicity. "ooo" [sic] Publicity and created good will, though fugitive and highly perishable are in reality property. "ooo" [sic]

Have you had enough? I have, and that is why I am writing this article. This is a plea to all educators, regardless of their subjects or levels, to stop passing the buck in the matter of teaching English. The ability to communicate is the most basic of all skills. However competent a person may be in his chosen field, his usefulness is limited

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Frankly, we are loathe to write much of a comment on this article for fear that we "can't write." The student writing samples used by the author convey the awkwardness he intended to portray. Even so, good writing is a discipline that evades not only students but also many adults regardless of their level of education achieved. The author of this pungent piece is instructor in the social studies, New York University, Washington Square, New York 3.*

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if he is unable to convey his ideas with accuracy. The instructor who insists that only the English department is responsible for teaching communications skills is harming himself, his colleagues, his students, and society in general. Every course, in a very real sense, should be an English course.

The American student has become so habituated to the idea that proper English is demanded only in an English class, and sometimes not even there, that he is shocked and becomes rebellious when a teacher in another subject area insists that the student use language correctly. This writer is always greeted with a chorus of moans and whines when he announces to his social studies students that their term papers will be graded on English as well as on content, scholarly procedures, and neatness. Even the latter requirement evokes hostility, for the coed who would gladly perish in the darkest corners of the inferno before coming to school with a lock of hair out of place will, without the slightest apology, submit a paper that appears to have been used to line the bottom of a bird cage. Hysterical protests always follow these announcements, and no amount of logic, rhetoric, or even downright scorn will lessen the students' vehemence. The reminder that they will soon be teachers themselves and should therefore set some kind of example to their own charges makes no impression whatever.

Obviously, the American student has been getting away with grammatical murder. Studies have shown that British youngsters at the age of fourteen are superior in writing ability to our college freshmen, and a recent article in the *New York Times* indicates that even our graduate students are often poorly prepared in the basic communications skills. At a stage when the student ought to be able to concentrate fully upon research in his area of specialization, his valuable time (not to mention that of his instructors) must be spent in learning basic rules and principles that ought to have been mastered in junior high at the very latest.

American education has already suffered from a number of slings and arrows. We are all familiar with the flood of books, articles, and speeches attacking our laxness. Many of the criticisms are exaggerated, and not a few stem from emotion and ignorance. But we cannot afford to ignore any critic, and the most effective way to counter the assaults is not by outraged howls of protest, but by striving to eradicate the conditions which give some justification to the criticisms.

Education is a co-operative venture. The "great man theory" does not apply in this business, for effective teaching can occur only when educators from the kindergarten to the graduate school work hand in hand. The time has come when every teacher in every classroom must be cognizant of the basic need to improve communications skills. There is no subject in the entire academic universe that does not in some way employ language. Instruction in the proper use of the English language can be integrated with any subject taught in the American schools. It is the duty of the teacher to analyze the language problems of his students and to help them to improve. This does not mean that the English teacher is to be eliminated. On the contrary, a program for improvement in communications skills can be conducted in every school under the expert guidance of the English department. If students are forced to realize that proper English usage will be required of them in all classes, the English teacher will be able to concentrate more intensively upon his area of instruction. The work of every instructor will be simplified, at least in the long run, as the general level of communications ability is raised. As for the students themselves, however much they may protest at first, they will be the beneficiaries.

No one will deny that American education is in need of some improvement. The place to start on a program of improvement is with the most basic of all needs—the need to write and to speak effectively.

# You Can Teach Reading

By PATRICIA JOHNSON AND ALVIN W. HOWARD

WE BELIEVE THAT READING can be successfully taught to junior-high seventh-grade students without experts.

At Fairhaven Junior High School we tried a different system with our reading classes last year (1958-59) with results which seemed almost spectacular to us. At the end of the first ten weeks of instruction, with three reading lessons a week, the low group had an average gain of 1.44 years and many of the youngsters gained well over two years. This same group showed an average gain of .8 year in the second ten weeks.

We started with 150 seventh graders and divided them into five ability-grouped reading classes of about thirty members each. These classes met for one period of fifty-five minutes three times weekly—Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday. We did not begin our reading instruction until the seventh-grade teachers had met and planned what they would teach and how the classes would operate. Reading instruction began on the

first of October. All students were grouped according to the Iowa Silent Reading Comprehension Test, Form M.

For the first ten weeks:

(1) Group five used the *Reader's Digest Skill Builders*, Parts I and II, plus materials on phrasing, speed, and comprehension. The range in reading was from 3.0 to 5.2 in this class. When the check test was given, Iowa Form L, ten weeks later, the range was 4.2 to 6.9. The least gain made in the first thirty lessons was .6 years, and the most was a boy who went from 3.0 to 5.8, a gain of 2.8 years. The average gain was 1.44 years.

(2) Group four, with a beginning reading spread from 5.4 to 6.7, used *Basic Reading Skills for Junior High Schools* by Gray et al., a Scott, Foresman publication. They varied this with a reader, *New Horizons Through Reading and Literature* by Brewton, Lemon, and Ernest (Laidlaw, 1958). Their December check test indicated an average increase of 1.1 years, and a new range of 5.6 to 8.2. The most gain here was a boy who moved from 5.6 to 8.2, a change of 2.6 years in thirty lessons.

(3) Group three began with a range of 5.9 to 7.7 and had an average gain of .68 years in the first ten weeks. They used *Be a Better Reader*, Book I, by Nila B. Smith (Prentice-Hall, 1958), and *Adventures in Reading* by Lodge and Braymer (Harcourt, Brace). The new spread here was 6.9 to 9.6.

(4) Group two used the Science Research Associates Reading Laboratory Kit and moved their September range of 7.7 to 9.0 up to 7.7 to 9.7 in December. Average gain, .71 years.

(5) Group one also used the S.R.A. Kit. Their beginning spread was 9.0 to 11+ but the check test revealed an interesting phenomenon: thirteen in this group showed a loss; the new range was 7.6 to 11+. Eight

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

Here is a report of reading progress made by pupils in junior-high-school grades without the use of specialists but with the help of selected skill-building materials. Obviously The Clearing House does not officially endorse or recommend any commercially sponsored reading materials. In fact, it cannot be held responsible for views expressed by the author of this or any other article. On the other hand, it doesn't make sense to us to censor items that have reference to copyright reading materials. Now that this policy is clarified, let us get on with the business at hand—this article. The authors are teacher and principal respectively at Fairhaven Junior High School, Bellingham, Washington.

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members of group two also exhibited a loss the first ten weeks.

We were somewhat surprised and quite concerned about this loss but we came to the conclusion that it was not the fault of the S.R.A. kit, an excellent device, but the fact that groups one and two were already reading well above grade level, and trying to teach these people new reading techniques was comparable to forcing a good golfer to change his grip.

With this in mind we reshuffled the materials, moved those youngsters who had above-average gains into higher groups, dropped the two or three lowest in each group into the group behind, and moved into the second ten weeks of reading instruction with the following results:

1. Group one materials were *Read Up on Life* by Wagenheim et al. (Henry Holt), and *Reader's Digest* Educational Series. January range, 9.2 to 11+; March range, 9.3 to 11+; average gain, .7 years. Work on vocabulary and comprehension was emphasized. Only two students in group one displayed any loss in the second ten weeks and such loss was slight.

2. Group two used the same materials as group one with even better results: January range, 7.7 to 9.4; March spread, 8.4 to 11+; average gain, .95 years. Only three class members showed any loss, again very slight.

3. Group three continued with the same materials they had the first ten weeks. Their January status was 6.0 to 8.4 and the March test set their new range at 6.9 to 10.2. Average gain 1.0 years in the second term.

4. Group four used the S.R.A. kit and moved their January range of 5.0 to 7.9 up to 5.8 and 9.8, with an average gain of .8 years.

5. Group five also used the S.R.A. kit, began in January with a range of 4.2 to 6.5, and registered a range with the check test in March of 5.0 to 8.0, for an average gain of .8 years, a total average gain since September of 2.24 years in twenty weeks.

We started the year with several of our 150 seventh graders having a reading placement at third grade or lower. The poorest reader presently in the seventh grade read, in March, at a 5.0 level. There were fourteen scattered between 5.1 and 5.9, and twenty-five between 6.0 and 7.0. All others read 7.0 or higher at this time.

Teachers, students, and parents are all interested and enthusiastic about the reading program. It is a real pleasure to hear some youngster who has been a slow reader for years say that he *wants* to go to reading class because reading is fun now.

In summing up the program to date, results seem to indicate that three hours a week of specific reading instruction is definitely worth while in the seventh grade. Top readers do not seem to profit so much, possibly because many felt that they were reading well enough already, perhaps because a change in method caused them temporary problems. In general, conscientious students who were consistently trying and who worked steadily showed gains.

These students will have, as eighth graders, only one reading lesson a week while the new seventh grade will follow this year's plan of three weekly ability-grouped classes. Those children who enter the seventh grade with a reading score of 9.0 or better will not take the reading class in the 1959-60 school year. They will be given instruction in conversational French three days weekly instead.

The program is well accepted by the students, parents are pleased with the results, and teachers in all areas are gratified when the class members are better able to read texts and other materials. We don't guarantee test validity, but by any standard it would appear that there is improvement. If anyone feels, as we did, that reading should be taught, don't be afraid. Take the plunge. If you wait for the experts to show up, you'll be a long time buying that new set of readers.

# In Defense of Teen-Age Humor

By GERALD RAFTERY

"DADDY, WHY IS MOMMY RUNNING SO FAST?"

"Shut up and reload!"

Funny? Maybe not to you, but your teen-age pupils probably think it is hilarious. And these "gruesome" jokes can get worse than that.

"Mommy, can I go over and play with Grandma?"

"Now, you're not going to dig her up again!"

Psychiatrists frown over these "sick" jokes and talk ponderously of deep feelings of hostility and subconscious resentment of parental control. But how would you classify this one?

"Mommy, what's a vampire?"

"Shut up and drink your blood."

Or its companion piece?

"Mommy, what's a werewolf?"

"Shut up and comb your face."

Let us just say that teen-age taste in humor is as robust as teen-age taste in music or in sandwiches. It is something that can appeal only to the young and vigorous. After all, if you're looking for the funny

side of life—or death—there isn't any equipment much more helpful than a stainless-steel digestion, a liver so elastic that it bounces, and a seventeenth birthday that is still hovering beyond the horizon.

Kids can joke about death and disease because nothing is further from their own experience. They're not expressing any hostility or morbidity; they're only displaying normal high spirits and a youthful sense of bravado.

When a young hot rodder refers nonchalantly to his steering-wheel spinner as "the suicide knob," he isn't revealing any subconscious death wish. For when he sends his heap snarling down the highway in a drag race, or careening around a corner on yowling tires, he isn't bent on suicide, no matter how much it may look like that. He's living, and he wants everybody to know it.

He'll get older and wearier soon enough, and start worrying about the international situation and the mortgage and his ulcer, and his sense of humor will change. He won't laugh very much at anything any more; he'll only smile wryly at satire and irony, which Archibald MacLeish called "the humor of the beaten man." After all, it's we of the older generation who are beaten; this talk of the "beat generation" is only a youthful intellectual version of the "suicide knob" school of bravado.

And hostility doesn't play any part in even the most heartless-sounding humor, either. I had an example just a few weeks ago from a sixteen-year-old girl. Linda dropped in one afternoon, laughing uncontrollably. When she was finally able to talk, she gasped, "Miss Jones broke her leg!" and off she went into another gale of innocent merriment. It turned out that Miss Jones was a pleasant and popular teacher. Linda had already joined in organizing a contribu-

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Well, here's Raftery again! And writing of a different kind of thing. The essential features of good writing appear to us to be: something to say, saying it well, and saying it clearly. On all three counts the author qualifies. In addition, he has a penchant for the controversial or the offbeat. As most of our readers know by this time, he is a school librarian in the public schools of Elizabeth, New Jersey.*

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tion to send her candy and flowers and had helped set up a schedule of pupils to visit her regularly; but the very idea of anyone—a teacher above all—breaking a leg is simply hilarious when you're sixteen.

One dull Sunday afternoon, this same Linda dropped in and amused herself by leafing through an old *World Almanac*. She happened to glance over the roster of the British Cabinet, and found it so funny that she laughed at it for ten minutes. She repeated the names over and over again, half to herself, and wound up rolling on the floor in helpless hilarity. Of course, every adult realizes that jokes which are old and dull to us may still be fresh and funny to a youngster; but most of us have to try hard to recall the day when it seemed irresistibly comic that anyone should be named Anthony Nutting.

This sense of humor has unfortunate drawbacks, too. Another young lady of Linda's age, very pretty and vivacious and much sought after by boys, complained bitterly to me during a serious moment of the problems of all-day dating. Quite simply, it was hunger; she invariably arrived home famished. Her young escorts weren't at fault; they provided for frequent and copious collations. But she always laughed so much that she never had time to eat all she wanted. And you think you have troubles!

Of course, some teen-age laughter is a result of sheer excess of energy. Consider the closely related problem of giggling. Two fourteen-year-old girls in a classroom can keep each other amused almost indefinitely just by exchanging covert glances. Three girls in a group can readily reduce themselves to semihysteria, and can produce laughter of that sort which television con-

siders valuable enough to record on tape for further use.

I remember a trio confiding in me once while I was monitoring a locker room.

"I think we're going to flunk music after today," said one solemnly. "We laughed and laughed."

"Look at my arm," offered another. "I pinched myself black and blue but I couldn't stop."

"Oo-ooh, it was terrible!" The third one giggled spasmodically, and her first companion joined in to suffer a slight relapse.

"It isn't funny!" The first girl stroked the faint blue bruises on her arm. "Every time I look at that teacher I have to laugh."

"Huh! It should happen to me," grunted a boy at the next locker; but it seldom does with boys.

But not all teen-age humor is simple. Some of the more formal "cruel" jokes require at least a nodding acquaintance with history or art or even religion—allusive outgrowths of that age when learning is new and easy—and occasionally even hilarious. Try one of these.

"I wouldn't worry about Nathan, Mrs. Hale; he's probably hanging around New York somewhere." Or—

"Maybe you'd be interested in our sale of odd ear muffs, Mr. Van Gogh."

I hesitate about including any religious jokes of the "cruel" category in this sampling, because most adults tend to consider them blasphemous. Of course, they aren't—any more than the Nathan Hale joke is unpatriotic. They just present the youthful and exuberant mind finding humor in an odd viewpoint, or in bravado—in laughing determinedly at those dangers and difficulties of the world which, they are sure, can never happen to them.



The average teacher thinks of public relations as either publicity or as some mysterious high-powered technique employed by experts in business or industry. Rarely does he consider it a personal thing.—DORA MACDONALD in *Louisiana Schools*.



# TEACHING=3X's

By MARION M. COBB

MANY TAXPAYERS think that teaching stands for excessive, extravagant expenditures. From the parent's point of view teaching is just excuses and excuses and more excuses. The average student thinks of teaching as a series of examples, exercises, and examinations, whereas the nonconforming student knows it to be a combination of exhortations, exonerations, and expulsions. To some teachers it seems to be a medley of exertions, exhaustions, and exasperations. To others, however, teaching is a series of exciting, exhilarating experiences.

Such a teacher was Dr. William Lyon Phelps, who wrote, "Yale University pays me for doing what I would gladly pay it for allowing me to do." Again Dr. Phelps wrote, "Speaking only for myself, I will say honestly that with me, teaching is more than an art or an occupation. It is a passion. I love to teach as a painter loves to paint, as a singer loves to sing, as a poet loves to write."

I like to think of teaching as an oppor-

tunity to develop in young people excellencies in faith, hope, and charity. Before we can do much toward the development of these traits in others we must possess these qualities ourselves. "As is the teacher, so are the students." For example, it may well be true that wherever we find students who do not like to go to school, there may also be found teachers who do not like to go to school either.

In teaching there is but one standard, and that is one's best. Because we may not be paid top salaries does not excuse us from doing our very best job of teaching. Neither does the fact that we do not hold the highest certification or teach in the largest cities excuse us. Because we are not supervisors or principals is no reason for putting forth less than our best effort. The late William Chandler Bagley often said, "In the great work of teaching there are no humble posts."

Not only should we be faithful to duty but we should have abundant faith—faith in the worth-whileness of the work we are doing. We should believe with the philosopher that "the boy is better unborn than untaught." It was Everett who said, "Education is a better safeguard of liberty than a standing army." If we do not believe in what we are doing, how can we be enthusiastic about it or expect our students to be so? Enthusiasm is caught, not taught. Emerson has said, "Nothing great was ever achieved without enthusiasm." Suppose I am asked to try out something new and I am tempted to say, "It can't be done." That is the surest way to be wrong. That is what has been said about nearly all great achievements until faith made them realities.

Not only must we believe in what we are doing but we must believe in ourselves. If we do not have faith in ourselves how can

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Every profession has some members who are highly qualified, highly interested, and deeply devoted! These men and women gain great respect for the professions they represent. They do not look upon their jobs for income alone nor do they worry about tenure. As the Rotary Club slogan says, they place "Service above Self." Thank Heavens the world is peopled with a large number of men and women of high purpose and devout humility!*

*This article deals with an inspiring theme. It was written by a teacher who retired from the faculty of Richmond Hill (New York) High School, September 11, 1959, and now lives in Kew Gardens, Long Island.*

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we expect our supervisors, chairmen, principals, or superintendents to have faith in us? Ninety per cent of accomplishment is believing that we are equal to the task. We must also have faith in the students. No student is all bad, no matter how unpromising he may appear to be. Our very faith in him will go a long way toward bringing out whatever latent abilities he may possess. I recall once asking a class, "What is the most beautiful thing that you have ever seen?" To my surprise the boy generally regarded as the ruffian in the class wrote, "A sunset" and my attitude toward the boy definitely improved.

In addition to faith we must have hope. We should be cheerful and optimistic. Byron says, "All who joy would win / Must share it,—happiness was born a twin." Are we so absorbed in looking at the dark side of the picture that we forget to note that the sky is as blue, the sun as bright, the air as clear and exhilarating as ever before? And not only do we feel and look different as we harbor pleasant or unpleasant thoughts, but we tend to make those around us, students and faculty alike, feel, think, and look as we do. An unhappy teacher whose face is garnished with gloom begets unhappy students. Since the homes of some of our students may be scenes of real deprivation and even suffering, is it surprising that some of the faces that peer at us each day are pinched and even careworn? We can do so much to bring sunshine where there is shadow and twinkles instead of tears.

Do we turn blue, figuratively speaking, as well as red when someone in authority tells us of a shortcoming? Often adverse criticism can be made into capital. A teacher taking a graduate course in writing was told by the professor that she wrote like a textbook. Although the themes were grammatically correct, they were returned with the same criticism time after time. These very criticisms were instrumental in starting the teacher on successful textbook writing. We may be down but we are not out until we admit it.

Let us not be nearsighted. Take a long look. "Believe what the years say, not the hours." If we invest in cheer, it will pay us good dividends in better health, the gratitude of our friends, and sound sleep. So the teacher must have faith and hope to develop these qualities in others.

The kind teacher refrains from criticizing fellow teachers adversely. He tries to get the parent's point of view as far as the child is concerned. The kind teacher is not forever on the lookout for cuts and slurs. It is good to remember the saying that "no gentleman or lady will offend you and no one else can." Look even upon our friends with a telescope, never with a microscope. One who is kind is just. Let the motive for the student's act rather than the act itself determine the punishment.

For example, two students are late to school. The one slept late and loitered on the way, whereas the other took a neighbor's small son, who had wandered too far from home, back to his anxious mother. Certainly no one would advocate that the same punishment should be meted out to both students. For this reason it is always desirable to let the student tell his side of the story first.

There are always at least two sides to every story, sometimes more. After a student has offended and the matter has been settled, the charitable teacher forgets it and bears no grudge. Elbert Hubbard once wrote, "The man who can't forget is as bad as the man who can't remember."

Not only do unkind acts and comments hurt the persons toward whom they are directed but there is no doubt but that unkind thoughts hurt the persons who hold them as well. It is said that Da Vinci, in making a painting of the Last Supper, sought revenge by painting the face of Judas, the betrayer, to represent that of one of his personal enemies. All went well until the artist tried to get the desired expression on the face of the central figure, the Christ. Try as he would with all his skill and artis-

try he failed to achieve the desired effect. After many attempts, according to the story, a friend in whom he confided with regard to his act of revenge, suggested that he repaint Judas, removing the resemblance to his enemy. The artist did so and immediately thereafter success crowned his efforts in portraying the Christ. Time spent in thinking ungenerous thoughts, doing unkind acts, or making uncharitable remarks leaves just so much less time for the many kindnesses which students, their parents, our fellow

teachers, and other friends both crave and deserve.

Daniel Webster said, "If we work upon marble, it will perish. If we work upon brass, time will efface it. If we rear temples, they will crumble into dust. But if we work upon men's immortal minds, if we imbue them with high principles, with the just fear of God and love of our fellow men, we engrave on those tablets something which no time can efface, and which will brighten and brighten to all eternity."



## The Habit of Listening

Listening also is influenced deeply by the approval or disapproval manifested by adults through listening habits that adults themselves employ.

We have known for many years of the influence of parents and teachers on the speech habits of their children. The young person may assume a dialect or the habitual rate or volume of his teachers. In the same way, a young person is likely to adopt the listening habits he sees in use around him. It is important for teachers not only to express approval of listening, but also to set a rather conspicuous example in situations where they are observed by their students.

At a high school a few weeks ago, an assembly program was in progress. Teachers were stationed throughout the auditorium to maintain behavior standards and to enforce silence. However, when the program lasted longer than expected, the teachers gathered in small groups and discussed this fact (and perhaps others). They believed in good listening, but their habits seemed to indicate that listening was somehow more closely related to the maintenance of discipline than to a pleasurable and profitable learning experience. The students soon noticed the inattentiveness and immediately became inattentive themselves. The habits of the teachers were reflected in the behavior of the students.

The listening habits of the teacher are also on display in the classroom. The teacher who nods and

smiles while a student is talking with him, obviously impatient to be done with the conversation, is likely to find that the student picks up and practices this habit.

One teacher related that he had developed the habit of continuing to do other work while "listening" to the student. He had not realized that this habit had communicated itself as inattentiveness to his students.

Parents, too, are on display as listeners. The parent who writes during meetings, avoids meetings without cause, or mutters "uh-huh" from behind a newspaper conveys his attitude toward listening through his habits. . . .

Most of us indulge in far too much escape and entertainment listening and have too little experience with informative and evaluative listening. We cannot be surprised, therefore, when our young people prefer the same "listening diet." Parents and teachers should indicate through their personal listening schedule an appreciation for informative and evaluative listening. In this way, they can convey that kind of appreciation to their young people.

Parents and teachers should examine frequently their personal listening habits. The influence of those habits on the attitudes of the young is reason enough to insist that they properly reflect adult approval of good listening practices.—RALPH G. NICHOLS and PAUL H. CASHMAN in *Education*.

# Lloyd Sanford and His Schooling

By ROBERT E. BELDING

SINCE THE SECOND WORLD WAR, England has been concentrating on expanding and refining its secondary education, tailoring it to the needs of all youths rather than to merely those of the "establishment" or nobility. This new "education for all" has had its effect on the so-called public school—the established, privately endowed school which recently has been assisted by funds from the Royal treasury with the understanding it will admit competent students from middle- and lower-class families.

In my visit to European schools during the summer of 1956 I elected to visit Lloyd Sanford, a young man from the row houses of industrial Leeds who was sponsored by his local education authority (similar to our school boards) to attend one of the established "public" schools just outside London.

I met Lloyd in his study room in Charterhouse School in the Surrey countryside south of London. The first impression he left with me was of his malaise in this fine school for boys. As I entered his room he had just been reviewing his depressing col-

lection of clippings from British newspapers—items which condemned his country's plan for democratizing the public school. One editorial he showed me noted that young upstarts such as Lloyd, from the lower shelves of society, were unworthy of an education. A statement from Somerset Maugham was to the effect that the ignobly born should not be favored with schooling; still another likened Sanford's ill-born kind to an offensive burp, shattering the silence of a polite social gathering. Although about a quarter of Lloyd's classmates had shared his rearing on the crowded lower shelf, he still felt an acute discomfort in this school which had been built for those who possessed "the proper genes" for a university-prep education.

"To the boys of noble birth here," said Lloyd, "the most disgraceful part of our being here is the payment by our L.E.A.'s (local education authorities) in our home communities of about a thousand dollars a year of our school fees for this exclusive institution. To the sons of nobility it places us on dole as leeches on the newly socialized state."

As though by compulsion Lloyd had unloaded these feelings on me; once he had dispensed with this cathartic exercise, he relaxed into a thoroughly enjoyable description of his secondary schooling. The total description emerged from questions I addressed to him on the physical surroundings of his school home.

"Ours is a cozy group here at Charterhouse School," he admitted. "We live together, about forty of us in a single housing unit. Our house master is one of our favorite instructors. We can 'feel' him preparing us in important phases of character education, which is the principal purpose of our boarding education."

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*This is the third in a series of pieces by the author on his experiences with school systems in European countries. He is associate professor of education, State University of Iowa, when he is not on location in Europe gathering material on comparative education. Our reaction to the series of articles is that (1) we need more extensive knowledge about the system of education in other lands, and (2) the best way to secure this information is through personal observation and visitation rather than through textbooks on the topic. Vivi informacion sobre educacion comparativo!*

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"Just what is this character-development emphasis you speak of, Lloyd?"

"Well, for one thing, it is the discipline of getting along with fellow men, with emphasis on our responsibility as their leaders. Our housing units here are relatively small, but our tutorial units are considerably smaller and quite informal, and guidance and individual attention from our master are impressively effective."

I interrupted to ask if the exemplary master of his house was the sole source of character building for Charterhouse boys.

"By no means," Lloyd answered. "Reminders never cease that character development is of utmost significance. For example, from having a mere voice in the government and discipline of this school, we move, in upper forms, into responsible positions as precepts. I anticipate especially the honor of this post, for it is the precepts, or upper-form students, who take the initiative in forming and maintaining the school's discipline and helping to establish the morale and the tone of the student body."

"Perhaps the character emphasis is best expressed on the plaque in the foyer of these living quarters. There are listed five elements of character building for which the school has taken active responsibility. These we memorize as prerequisite to becoming accepted members of this house: religion, cultural experience, adequate discipline, athletics, and indoctrination in service to fellow men. I do believe we are receiving firm guidance in these responsibilities, although our master reminds us that the full force of these values will emerge for us after we have matured out of Charterhouse."

"Perhaps I understand this character element in your education better than I do some other aspects, Lloyd. The private school where I taught in New England stressed this nebulous element of character in its faculty more than any other single thing. Instead of reviewing a series of pro-

fessional education courses on our credentials, our hiring officer looked for evidence that we had remained bachelors so we could give undivided attention to the boys at school. Other aspects of 'character' included spontaneous church attendance, downright crafty discipline, good table manners, and athletic competence. To return to you, Lloyd, what additional attributes do your own masters possess?"

"They are splendidly versed in their assigned school subjects—most of them are honor graduates from first-rate universities, and competent in sports. They also attend church with us, and set fine examples of the clean way of life, for I do believe the philosophy of our public schooling presupposes that a certain portion of the master's exemplary way of life will rub off on us."

I told Lloyd that for those of us across the Atlantic, England's so-called secondary modern schools, run by the county authorities, are the most significant change in the isle's postwar education. "Could you enlighten me on this, perhaps by contrasting it to your own education, or don't you feel qualified?"

"Only moderately qualified," Lloyd admitted. "Ted, my younger brother, is spending his first year in the county secondary school in Leeds—in a modern school—and he passes on impressions to me which make me feel there is more similarity than contrast between his county-run or 'provided' school and the traditional public school such as I am attending. If there is a school with new ideas, a school which is being molded to the needs of its community, a school which has been responsible for democratizing education, it is this modern school run by its local education authority. But we have passed on some of our public school traditions to the county school, thus placing it in competition with us. Some say that as the county school comes closer to fulfilling the needs of all local youths, the public school will no longer be necessary. How like Charterhouse is my home town



school already! I returned home from a holiday—a holiday which only a few years back was declared as a privilege only of the public school nobility. To my surprise, Ted was enjoying my school holidays with our exclusive, public-school label on it. This is indeed an innovation."

I asked Lloyd for additional impressions of his brother's hometown schooling, and he went on to say that the most significant thing resulting from the Education Act of 1944 has been the streamlining of the secondary offering in the county schools. "I am no expert in educational matters," Lloyd confessed, "but as I recall there were, not so many years back, about seven confusing types of secondary schools. These have been consolidated into three main types called the 'grammar,' for those planning to attend the university; the 'technical' for the tradesman, and the 'secondary modern' which has, as I mentioned earlier, been favored with the greatest postwar encouragement because of its novel and experimental nature.

"There has been a reshuffling of buildings in the consolidation, and somehow the elementary schools have inherited some of the older, specialized buildings constructed for the seven types of secondary education. Consequently the new school buildings seem mostly to be modern secondaries, for often their plant has to be tailored to the community's needs. In Leeds, for example, the tanneries and rail-wagon industries control the economy and therefore the local education authority, so that the curriculum and plant of the modern school, as well as those of the technical, are built with this in mind."

I went on to say that in the United States we are test conscious all the way through our schooling. "I understand that in Britain the exams at the end of secondary school are your largest single academic concern. Could you pass on to me some of your impressions of your General Certificate of Education examination which will termi-

nate your education here at Charterhouse?"

Lloyd said that experimental stepping-stones had been laid barely ahead of him and that his anticipation of the new type of examination was not too worrisome. "Only just before I came to Charterhouse," he said, "the Ministry of Education reviewed the terminal exams which for years had been fashioned to the rote memorization of the grammar schools and to university preparation. My exams, by contrast, will be broad and varied and almost interesting to take. Unless things change radically between now and my graduation, I will have a selection from some three-score subjects from which my tutor and I can choose an even dozen suited to my interests and skills. Another novelty: these will be Charterhouse's own tests and not some imposed from the university-bred central government.

"By the way, I have told of some ways in which *our* type of school has influenced the L.E.A. schools. In the matter of testing, the county schools have been influential in reforming our terminal exams, making them far less arduous than they used to be."

I asked if he had any idea of how his brother Ted's exams in the county schools would be selected or what they would embrace.

"It is certain his selection of subjects will be even broader than ours at Charterhouse. The ones he takes will qualify him for direct entrance to employment in Leeds—the clerical work or the technical jobs in the tanneries or the potteries or the textile plants or the railway shops. His General Certificate of Education diploma will bear the titles of the examinations he has passed and even indicate at what level of competence he has passed them. This will be his ticket for direct entrance to a local position. The L.E.A. will make up his examinations, and on that local board are representatives of industry who are anxious to keep youths in Leeds and to give them jobs, so the selection of tests will be biased in favor of local

opportunities for youths. Local interest in education is acute and is a radical change from the days when the central government ran everything scholastic."

"Tell me, Lloyd: in your country's socialist effort to maintain equal rights for everyone, has there been an effort to give girls the same educational opportunities as boys?"

"We haven't yet moved over here at Charterhouse to make way for the distaffs. However, the secondary modern in particular has tailored a program for the females, and I understand that the women who attend Oxford now receive diplomas with the name of the university printed thereon. This could not have happened a few years

back, even for the women who attended those institutions! Despite all the effort to create equal rights for everyone, many feel that the girls should continue to be separated from the boys in secondary schooling. As Churchill recently has declared, 'Co-education is an emasculated education; boys should be educated with boys.'"

Lloyd especially impressed me with his ability to express himself on contemporary English schools, the local education authority, the 1944 Education Act, and components of character his education has developed in him. Would one of our students be equally adept at interpreting to a foreigner the function of his local school board or the goals of his own education?

## The "How" of Homework

The newer approach equates study with learning. The emphasis as far as homework is concerned becomes that of teaching pupils how to learn and how to become self directing in their study. Continuity between classroom and out-of-classroom study is sought. Teachers know very well that the demands of the classroom will largely condition the approaches the pupil will use in independent study. If factual tests are a major element of the teaching method, memory will be the habit of study employed by the pupil. The habit of memorizing is likely to be employed as the means of study even in situations in which memorizing is completely inappropriate. Thus, classroom activities should require a variety of individual and group learning experiences which are completed outside the classroom. Examples of these activities are identifying and defining problems; analyzing problems through library, laboratory or action research type of activity, interviews, visits, experiments and the like.

Needless to say, this kind of homework emphasis does not reduce the range of opinion or the number of issues relative to homework. Rather the shifting emphasis to problem-solving and independent study type of outside of classroom learning has introduced new problems and issues. The efforts to develop independent study have largely centered upon

(a) the lengthened period with time devoted to the teaching of appropriate study techniques, (b) the development of separate how-to-study courses, (c) the use of special or remedial teachers such as a reading teacher to develop certain skills, and (d) the provision of supervisory help for the teacher in teaching study habits through regular class procedures. Within any given staff one will almost certainly find advocates of these various approaches. Obviously the direction of curriculum development being taken in a given school, administrative procedures, preparation of staff and the like will determine which, if any, steps are taken to alter the quality of homework and to prepare pupils to profit fully from it.

Regardless of the teaching methods employed, teachers need to understand and to recognize good study procedures and be able to diagnose cases of inefficiency in or ignorance of study procedures. Aids to the teacher in the form of books and monographs on effective study procedures, diagnostic tests, remedial materials, guides, inventories and the like are plentiful and are of excellent quality. In addition, the teacher can detect evidence of poor study habits through observation, examination of pupils' work, conferences, and . . . questionnaires.—  
LLOYD MCCLEARY in *Educational Leadership*.

# Children's Summer-School Theater

By SYDNEY WRIGHT

"As YOU ENCOURAGE the growth of artistic achievement through the medium of creative drama, you strengthen the cultural life of our nation and all nations." So stated President Eisenhower at the Children's Theater Conference of 1958.

Our public schools have a unique opportunity to meet this goal. This kind of theater, educational yet entertaining, can be easily added to programs of many schools in the form of a summer-school children's theater.

In Eau Claire, Wisconsin, we have just completed our first summer of such a program. Here, summer school, with the exception of music and recreation, is new. Elsewhere the summer school for all grades through high school is not novel. Some systems have developed elaborate summer-school programs over a twenty-five-year period. Some of these offer dramatics in one form or another. Children's theater is also an established custom in many areas, sponsored by Junior Leagues, P.T.A. groups, libraries, and many other groups.

My thesis is twofold: (1) Summer-school children's theater is worth while and relatively inexpensive for any school of aver-

age size. (2) Since goals are educational, the agency most suited for the development of it is the local school system through the board of education.

Let us analyze the first of these two statements.

There are many factors that make nearly any theater worth while. These are evident enough to those of us in the field of speech who see talents and personality values taking form every day of the preparation of a play. Dramatics involves the production of plays but is not, properly conducted, a "play ground." Theater work is a discipline, with a great body of subject-matter material to be learned and specific skills to be perfected. The most obvious and perhaps important of these skills is the one of intelligent, imaginative self-expression in every situation. Any parent of a sensitive, yet excessively shy child, can attest to the value of dramatics if the child has had that experience. Most children with speech impediments can be aided by a summer-school children's theater. Many personality problems can be taught to discipline themselves through the strict control necessary in the successful operation of a theater program.

But the values are not all therapeutic. In the same class, if it is elective, there will be many superior students, who can find plenty of challenge to their abilities in selecting appropriate costuming, designing and carrying out sets, developing light changes, and choosing music that will best aid in setting the mood of the play. All this is in addition to the demands of creating a role on the stage. No student can play the part of Rumpelstiltskin or the Sleeping Beauty satisfactorily without being extremely creative.

This kind of a program stimulates young writers to do their own one-act plays. Some-

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## EDITORS' NOTE

*Here is a resourceful and creative junior-high-school teacher's account of a different kind of summer school. Learning, you know, does not have to be always structured in terms of school credits, report cards, graduation certificates, and other academic paraphernalia. Not at all. The performance of Rumpelstiltskin is an illustration. Remember Rumpelstiltskin? Why not read about it in this account. Our author is a teacher at the junior high school in Eau Claire, Wisconsin.*

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times groups of students can develop a play together, learning plot development and language usage at the same time.

But perhaps best of all, there is the audience—the unpredictable and demanding, yet, when pleased, the incomparably enthusiastic age group of four to ten years. What has children's theater to offer them besides a different type of entertainment? I submit that they learn language and literature. I believe that when the plays are developed for educational purposes they become more worth while than the general run of children's programs on TV. I believe that the love for live theater is in itself worth perpetuating and can easily be inculcated through a children's theater program.

Now for a look at the reasons for the board of education's taking the lead in the support of such a program. The first reason, of course, is the educational quality of such a program as outlined above. Next, it seems to me that a board of education might be interested in using teachers as much of the year as possible rather than see them spend the summer working in factories, bartending, selling cars, or whatever else they can find to supplement income.

Then, too, is there an administrator or board of education member who doesn't feel a little uncomfortable when expensive classrooms and auditoriums are empty for the three summer months? As far as that goes, is there an administrator or a board of education member who isn't constantly aware of the need for good public relations?

Here it is. The public is invited to come and see. The auditorium is in continual use. The youngsters have obviously gained. The local children are talking it up at home and prefer the plays to TV. The school is in the public eye in a favorable light.

The cost of this program is relatively small. It could be partially or wholly subsidized by an admission price.

In Eau Claire this course was titled "Speech" and ran for six weeks, as did other academic subjects. The class consisted of seventeen students and met for two hours a morning five days a week. Plays were produced on alternate Fridays, making three different programs. We concentrated on one-acts, doing two programs of two one-act plays each and one three-act play, *Rumpelstiltskin*, which was also presented at night for the parents and other interested adults. Co-operation from radio and newspaper people was good and we had a packed house of fascinated kids every time.

Since the actors were young, seventh through ninth grades, a close bond was developed between actors and audience. Especially talented actors developed their own little following. The boy who was *Rumpelstiltskin* was enthusiastically greeted by that name when he appeared on stage in succeeding plays. If stage movement was kept fast and continuous and if cuing was sharp and quick, then the audience was continuously alert. Extreme characterizations and movement were the best guarantees for edge-of-the-seat attentiveness.

The children's theater audience was either completely involved in the play or completely disinterested. There was no such thing as an apathetic tolerance of slow scenes, such as an adult audience might demonstrate. Lack of interest quickly took more active forms—the mildest of which was fidgeting. One boy took to throwing tacks on the stage during a slow scene, and since actors were clad in leotards, this could have had dire consequences. The degree of empathy reached by the juvenile audience is illustrated by the boy who came backstage in search of *Rumpelstiltskin* and when he found him, out of costume and with make-up off, said, "I hate you, you ugly man!"

It must be obvious that we enjoyed our work with the summer children's theater, but pure enjoyment is not reason enough for the expenditure of public funds.

In this age of science it's time we asked ourselves some serious questions. Are *all* bright children fitted for intensive work only in science? Is there enough opportunity for a *variety* of creative work in the normal class day? Are cultural interests such as theater worth amplifying beyond

the regular school year's extracurricular schedule? Is there need for "strengthening the cultural life of our nation"?

Perhaps these questions could be partially resolved by the inauguration of a summer school children's theater in your community.

## An Extra Period a Day

By W. L. SHOEMAKER

Urbana, Illinois

The teachers complained that it was difficult to have students remain after school for individual help because there were too many extracurricular activities going on. The counselors complained that there were some students in class every period; hence they could not see them as often as needed. The class sponsors complained about times for class meetings in order to avoid conflicts with other group meetings. These and many similar conflicts were resolved in University High School, Urbana, Illinois, by the addition to the school day of an extra thirty-five-minute period called, for want of a better name, "Activity Period."

The activity period was added to the school day in order to provide time for academic work or work which is related to academic courses which could not conveniently be handled within the regular class period. Another purpose of the extra period was to provide time for music and other activities in order to lessen conflicts and improve the operation of these activities.

A board of control was organized to schedule the use of the extra period at the beginning of each quarter of the school year. A system of priorities was followed. On Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, academic work had first priority. On one of these days one class meeting per month was regularly

scheduled. Additional class meetings were held during the extra period if requested one week in advance by class officers, sponsors, counselors, or the principal. On Tuesday, music activity had first priority, and on Thursday, activities other than music had first priority.

Academic work consisted of individual or group conferences and instructions, but did not consist of full group instruction, thereby increasing the amount of total instruction in a specific course.

Attendance was required of individual students, but those students not requested to attend were excused from school. The two week period, December 1 through December 12, was arbitrarily chosen to ascertain the extent to which the extra period was utilized by the students and staff. Twenty-seven per cent of the student body attended the extra period for individual help in subject matter, counseling, club, and music group activities. Forty-five per cent of the faculty were involved in the activities.

At the end of the school year, both the students and faculty were "well satisfied" with the results of the extra period and wished to have the schedule continued. This extra period was not seen as the answer to all conflicts and problems in the student use of time, but as a means of providing more flexibility in an extraclass program.



## Book Reviews

FORREST A. IRWIN, *Book Review Editor*

*Guidance in Today's Schools* by DONALD G. MORTENSEN and ALLEN M. SCHMULLER. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959. 436 pages, \$5.75.

Despite the fact that the initiated will find little that is new and no startling recommendations in this volume, it is well worth a careful perusal because of its orderly and lucid presentation of the case for organized guidance in the school. Defining guidance as "that part of the total educational program that helps provide the personal opportunities and specialized staff services by which each individual can develop to the fullest of his abilities and capacities in terms of the democratic ideal," the authors next unfold the bases upon which their premise is established. Briefly they trace the early sociological, pedagogical, and psychological ideologies that have contributed to the guidance movement; then they point up sharply the pressures of modern living that make pupil personnel services imperative for youth at all levels. Their chapter on structuring and administering a guidance program, with particular emphasis on the "team" approach is clear cut and practical. The outlines here of sample programs already in use are indicative of the trends in this direction.

Two areas are especially well drawn. The section on personality analysis and its implications for development of the "integrated" individual evolves in terms of how satisfyingly he meets his needs at home, in school, and in the community. The discussion of "techniques for understanding pupils" is illuminated by charts, questionnaires, and sample record forms that might be immediately useful to the reader.

The second half of the book puts much of the foregoing theory into practice—with recommendations for orienting the school curriculum to the guidance philosophy, suggestions as to how learning may be facilitated by use of guidance procedures, and specific techniques for effective counseling. The final chapter deals with methods of evaluating established guidance programs.

Although this book, with its list of "suggested problems" at the end of each chapter, is obviously set up as a text for beginners in the guidance field, it can well serve as a basis for faculty in-service training and as a refresher for

the seasoned counselor. The thesis, moreover, is simply and clearly enough presented to bring it within reach of the interested layman. The volume is a worthy addition to the guidance bookshelf.

ROSE FRIEDMAN

*The House of Intellect* by JACQUES BARZUN. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959. 276 pages. \$5.00.

Jacques Barzun's thesis that fuzziness in modern art, pragmatism in science, and philanthropy in teaching have debauched Intellect is flashy, witty, and half convincing. It fails to stand out as a major contribution because it is chiefly a backward look, an obituary for the pure Intellect that has given way to social intelligence.

Somehow, for all its brilliance, *House of Intellect* doesn't quite come off. At least the despised artist offers wonderment, the unintellectual scientist provides comforts, and the philanthropic teacher supplies encouragement. Intellect is expected to provide instruction. But this book offers only lamentation and chiding.

The author, who in *The Art of Teaching* was confident, sharp, and sure of his values, is now hesitant, uncertain, questioning. His forlorn hope is echoed in his final sentence, "[Intellect] being what it is—the power which out of man's intermittent flashes of genius fused the clear crystal of alphabet and number—it will survive even if it die."

This may be the tiredness of a scholar who succumbed to a deanship and to the Mid-Century Book Club. It is not the testament of an Intellectual with full faith in his brand of intellectualism.

The book deserves attention because it compels us to concern ourselves with the fate of Intellect, which must have attention. What the author perceives as the crumbling of the House of Intellect may be only its refurbishing to accommodate the new mode in the changing tradition of scholarship which supports it and the changing face of the culture which it serves.

Much that Barzun says rings true and strong and important. Only with it he includes so much nonsense, by 1959 standards. "Avant-garde psychology, avant-garde art, and the philanthropy that is coeval with them, alike cherish

the warm confusion of animal existence." Most critics of the current scene eye with concern not the warm confusion but the cold, calculating indifference. But Barzun appears to have an almost compulsive concern to be with the minority. Something almost indecent connects with the majority. By his definition Intellect is something quite apart, select, discriminating, not quite aloof, but definitely at odds with democracy.

On the very first page he identifies his subject as "the beleaguered Intellectual—it is a badge and a position in life." From here on through 276 pages he does little more than imitate Miniver Cheevy, who loved the days of old and cursed the commonplace.

DONALD W. ROBINSON

*Adolescence and Discipline; a Mental Hygiene Primer* by RUDOLPH H. WITTENBERG. New York: Association Press, 1959. 318 pages, \$4.95.

With a distinct psychoanalytic flavor this popularly written primer for adults about adolescents presents some of the current psychological and pedagogical thoughts on discipline. Discipline according to the author has a double meaning, namely, "learning and punishment." It is the basic factor in the growth of every individual from babyhood to maturity. The development of "inner discipline" becomes the ultimate mark of a mature adult. How to achieve this inner discipline is the main theme of the book.

In part I, the author presents an account of adolescent growth and behavior in their biological, sociological, and psychological dimensions. It is proposed here to help adults understand every facet of the adolescent—his developing ego, his relationships to peer groups, his striving for inner balance and independence, and his reactions and adjustments to all important social milieus. Part II describes the various disciplinary techniques used by adults in their contacts with adolescents.

Part III, the real "meat" of the book, offers some pertinent suggestions on ways and means of helping adolescents achieve inner discipline. In helping the adolescent achieve this maturity the adult must define boundaries, must set limits, and must say *no* on occasions in order to aid and encourage this growth toward inner discipline and subsequent adult maturity.

The book is recommended as required reading for all who wish and need to gain deeper understanding of this complex period of growth.

HENRY ANGELINO

## Who's Who Among Our Reviewers

Dr. Angelino is professor of education, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma.

Miss Friedman was, until February 1, director of guidance at Thomas Jefferson Junior High School, Teaneck, New Jersey.

Mr. Robinson is a social studies teacher at Carlmont High School, Belmont, California. His by-line has appeared frequently on articles published in recent issues of *The Clearing House*.

## Paperbounds Received

From DELL PUBLISHING CO., INC., 750 Third Ave., New York 17, N.Y.:

*Abraham Lincoln* by CARL SANDBURG, 1959. *The Prairie Years*, and *The War Years*, three-volume set, \$2.95.

*Famous American Plays of the 1920's* selected and introduced by KENNETH MACGOWAN, 1959. 511 pages, 75 cents.

*Famous American Plays of the 1930's* selected and introduced by HAROLD CLURMAN, 1959. 480 pages, 75 cents.

*Henry IV, Part 1*, by WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, 1959. 219 pages, 35 cents.

*Plutarch—Lives of the Noble Greeks* edited by EDMUND FULLER, 1959. 383 pages, 50 cents.

*Plutarch—Lives of the Noble Romans* edited by EDMUND FULLER, 1959. 383 pages, 50 cents.

*Robert Louis Stevenson* edited by DAVID DAICHES, 1959. 383 pages, 50 cents.

*The Winter's Tale* by WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, 1959. 224 pages, 35 cents.

From NEW AMERICAN LIBRARY OF WORLD LITERATURE, INC., 501 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.

*The March up Country*, a translation of Xenophon's *Anabasis*, by W. H. D. ROUSE, 1959. 191 pages, 50 cents.

*The New American Guide to Colleges* by GENE R. HAWES, 1959. 256 pages, 75 cents.

*Understanding Chemistry* by LAWRENCE P. LESSING, 1959. 192 pages, 50 cents.

From BANTAM BOOKS, INC., 25 West 45th St., New York 36, N.Y.:

*The Age of Reason* by JEAN-PAUL SARTRE, 1959. 342 pages, 75 cents.

*Beyond the Pleasure Principle* by SIGMUND FREUD, 1959. 121 pages, 50 cents.

*Candide* by VOLTAIRE, 1959. 122 pages, 35 cents.

*Exodus* by LEON URIS, 1959. 599 pages, 75 cents.

*Man and Superman* by GEORGE BERNARD SHAW, 1959. 288 pages, 50 cents.

*Pudd'nhead Wilson* by MARK TWAIN, 1959. 143 pages, 35 cents.

*The Russian Revolution* by ALAN MOOREHEAD, 1959. 303 pages, 50 cents.

*War with the Newts* by KAREL ČAPEK, 1959. 241 pages, 50 cents.

From POCKET BOOKS, INC., 630 Fifth Ave., New York 20, N.Y.:

*The Day Christ Died* by JIM BISHOP, 1959. 352 pages, 50 cents.

*Masters of Deceit* by J. EDGAR HOOVER, 1959. 352 pages, 50 cents.

*Mondadori's Pocket Italian-English English-Italian Dictionary* by ALBERTO TEDESCHI and CARLO ROSSI FANTONETTI, 1959. 305 pages, 50 cents.

From WASHINGTON SQUARE PRESS, INC., 630 Fifth Ave., New York 20, N.Y.:

*The Tragedy of Doctor Faustus* by CHRISTOPHER MARLOWE, 1959. 79 pages, 35 cents.

*The Tragedy of the Duchess of Malfi* by JOHN WEBSTER, 1959. 124 pages, 35 cents.

*The Tragedy of Romeo and Juliet* by WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, 1959. 115 pages, 35 cents.

*The Way of All Flesh* by SAMUEL BUTLER, 1959. 417 pages, 50 cents.

## Pamphlets Received

*The Challenge of the Present to Public Education* by VIVIAN T. THAYER. Columbus 10, Ohio: Ohio State University (College of Education), 1959. 41 pages, \$1.00.

*Free and Inexpensive Materials on World Affairs* by LEONARD S. KENWORTHY and THOMAS L. KENWORTHY. Brooklyn 10, N.Y.: Brooklyn College (World Affairs Materials), 1959. 73 pages, \$1.00.

*Free and Inexpensive Teaching Aids for Science Education* compiled by MURIEL BEUSCHLEIN. Chicago 21, Ill.: Chicago Schools Journal, 6800 Stewart Ave., 1959. 71 pages, 25 cents.

*Life Goes On* (2d ed.) by R. WILL BURNETT, JESSIE WILLIAMS CLEMENSEN, and HOWARD S. HOYMAN. New York 17: Harcourt Brace and Co., 1959. 56 pages, 96 cents.

*Pictures, Pamphlets and Packets* (for air/space age education) (2d ed.). Washington 6, D.C.: National Aviation Education Council (1025 Connecticut Ave., N.W.), 1959. 22 pages, free.

*Resource Materials in Civic Education for Adult Elementary Classes*, Curriculum Bulletin No. 7, 1957-58 series. Brooklyn 1, N.Y.: Board of

Education of the City of New York (Publication Sales Office, 110 Livingston St.).

*The Testing Service: a Design for Program Development*. Hartford, Conn.: State Department of Education (Bureau of Pupil Personnel and Special Educational Services), 1959. 160 pages, \$1.00.

*The World of Books* (Reading Lists for Students in the Beverly Hills Unified School District), 1959. Beverly Hills, Calif.: Supervisor of School Libraries, 205 S. Rexford Dr. \$1.00.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED FROM THE BUREAU OF PUBLICATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY (New York 27):

*Creativity of Gifted and Talented Children*, addresses by PAUL WITTY, JAMES B. CONANT, and RUTH STRANG, 1959. 51 pages, \$1.00.

*Dimensions, Units, and Numbers in the Teaching of Physical Sciences* by RENÉE G. FORD and RALPH E. CULLMAN, 1959. 49 pages, \$1.00.

*Modern High School Physics* (a recommended course of study) (2d ed.), 1959. 70 pages, \$1.50.

*The Parent-Teacher Partnership* by ERNEST OSBORNE, 1959. 52 pages, 60 cents.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED FROM THE CENTER FOR EDUCATIONAL SERVICE, College of Education, Ohio University (Athens, Ohio):

*Evaluating the School's Testing Program* (Pupil Services Series, No. 2) by GEORGE E. HILL, 1959. 28 pages.

*Identifying the School's Guidance Resources* (Pupil Services Series, No. 3) by GEORGE E. HILL, 1959. 18 pages.

*Suggested Techniques for Conducting Talented Student Follow-up Studies* (Pupil Services Series, No. 4) by DONALD A. GREEN and ROBERT W. SCHMEDING, 1959. 36 pages.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED FROM THE NATIONAL SCIENCE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.:

*Action for Science under NDEA* (Report of an Association Conference on the National Defense Education Act of 1958), 1959. 22 pages; single copy, free; in quantity, 15 cents each.

*Careers in Science Teaching* (Future Scientists of America), 1959. 16 pages; single copy, free; quantity orders, 10 cents each.

*Science for the Academically Talented Student* (Report of a conference sponsored jointly by the National Education Association Project on the Academically Talented Students and the National Science Teachers Association), 1959. 64 pages, 60 cents.

# ➤ The Humanities Today ➤

Associate Editor: HENRY B. MALONEY

## TV & NEWER MEDIA

### *Sacco-Vanzetti Trial*

As Erle Stanley Gardner has learned, much to his profit, people like to look in on trials. Both readers and viewers have enjoyed a vicarious seat in the courtroom as Perry Mason starts to chip away at the prosecution's case. *Anatomy of a Murder* also captured the attention of readers and viewers, moving them through a rather gamy trial before the denouement was reached.

One of the most famous trials of the twentieth century will come to life again next month when N.B.C.-TV produces a two-part documentary drama based on the Sacco-Vanzetti case (Fridays, June 3 and June 10, 8:30-9:30 P.M., NYT). Since it is being presented in the year when the fate of Caryl Chessman became a matter of international import, the play has added significance.

The Sacco-Vanzetti incident began forty years ago. In April, 1920, a \$16,000 payroll robbery was staged in South Braintree, Massachusetts. The paymaster and his guard were shot to death by bandits who fled in a large touring car. Five months later, amid a rabid anti-"red" atmosphere, Nicola Sacco and Bartolomeo Vanzetti were indicted for the crime. Both Sacco and Vanzetti were immigrants and admitted radicals. Tried and found guilty of murder in the first degree, they sat in their cells for seven years and watched friends and prominent members of the bar file petitions and motions for retrial. All were denied, however; most after having been ruled on by Judge Thayer, who had presided in the original trial.

One of the motions for a retrial which was based on a claim of prejudice leveled at Thayer was also dismissed by him in 1927, two weeks before the sentence was carried out. On August 23, 1927, Sacco and Vanzetti were executed in the electric chair.

There is a considerable amount of lively reading available on the case. Robert P. Weeks of the University of Michigan has distilled much of the important testimony from the 6,000-page court transcript into an interesting 287-page book (*Commonwealth vs. Sacco and Vanzetti*, Prentice-Hall, 1958). Mr. Weeks's book also

contains excerpts from antiradical articles that appeared in the newspapers of the time, some of the letters of Sacco and Vanzetti, the New York Times account of the execution, Edna St. Vincent Millay's essay "Fear," a "Camera Eye" from John Dos Passos' *U.S.A.*, a Pulitzer Prize winning editorial from the Boston Herald, a bibliography, and a number of research exercises for very advanced students.

Not included in the Weeks book is the castigation of Judge Thayer's tactics written in 1927 by Supreme Court Justice Felix Frankfurter (then a Harvard Law School professor). His comments, a few of which follow, were originally published prior to the execution:

Speaking from a considerable experience as a prosecuting officer, whose special task for a time it was to sustain on appeal convictions for the Government, and whose scientific duties since have led to the examination of a great number of records and the opinions based thereon, I assert with deep regret, but without the slightest fear of disproof, that certainly in modern times Judge Thayer's opinion stands unmatched, happily for discrepancies between what the record discloses and what the opinion conveys. His 25,000 word document cannot accurately be described otherwise than as a farrago of misquotations, misrepresentations, suppressions, and mutilations. . . . The opinion is literally honeycombed with demonstrable errors, and infused by a spirit alien to judicial utterance.\*

A fictional condemnation of the judge can be found in the depiction of Judge Gaunt in Maxwell Anderson's *Winterset*. (The part was excellently played by Charles Bickford in last fall's Hallmark "Hall of Fame" production.)

Would Sacco and Vanzetti have been given a stay of execution if President Calvin Coolidge had contemplated a good-will tour of South America in 1927? Probably not. World pressures can grow more rapidly and produce "feedback" more quickly in our age of virtually instantaneous international communication. There are other disparate factors one notices in comparing the Sacco-Vanzetti situation with that of Caryl Chessman. The two Italians did not have the death sentence imposed on them until four months before they were executed. Chessman has had a death sentence over his head for

\* Felix Frankfurter, *The Case of Sacco and Vanzetti: a Critical Analysis for Lawyers and Laymen* (Boston: Little, Brown, and Co., 1927), p. 104.

twelve years. A curious twist is that interested outsiders thought that Sacco and Vanzetti should be released because of their innocence. Their attitude toward Chessman has been that he is guilty but that his release should come about because he has suffered enough.

There are two urgent areas in which many high schools fall short in their training of young people for whatever lies ahead. One is that the schools do not grant seniors the responsibilities that they should be made to accept. Another is that not enough time is spent in teaching upperclassmen to discuss objectively and with open minds issues that will confront them shortly after they leave school.

With fifty nations and nine states having outlawed capital punishment, there seems to be a growing trend away from it. Whether it should be continued might well be a matter that today's students will eventually vote on in their states. The telecast can provide a valuable discussion or lead to a profitable unit on the subject, with the teacher acting as moderator.

It should be mentioned in concluding that Justice Michael Musmanno, who served on the Sacco-Vanzetti defense committee, will act as technical adviser for the programs. The play, therefore, can be expected to reflect the defense's point of view.

H.B.M.

## SCREENINGS

### *Especially for Teachers*

It is rather late now to be commenting on *The 400 Blows*. But it is a picture of such exceptional quality that inevitably it will have many "revivals" after its current run is exhausted. Along these lines, Allardyce Nicoll has contended that films would be less ephemeral if given some Shavian screenwriters who could transcribe interesting, readable stage directions for scenarios (*Film and Theatre*, Crowell, 1956). Books of screenplays would give movies a little more durability, but I think the evanescence of individual moving pictures is due in great part to the conditioning of consumers by admen who tend to use "newness" and "goodness" synonymously. At any rate, consigning *The 400 Blows* to the printed page would snuff out roughly 90 per cent of its appeal.

François Truffaut's picture is constructed along firm cinematic lines. The images on the screen show the story, and they do it through movement. In other words, I am sure that those spectators who are unable to understand either

the French dialogue or the English subtitles can follow and enjoy the picture because its story line can be apprehended through sight alone. There are long stretches during which there is nothing on the sound track except Jean Constantin's appropriately wistful jazz score. This is not to deny the effectiveness of the dialogue in the film, but rather to indicate that it is subordinate to the visual images.

*The 400 Blows* often assumes a documentary quality by avoiding the crisp chiaroscuro of too perfect photography that has destroyed the mood in many Hollywood pictures. The realism is heightened by scenes in a seedy-looking schoolroom and a slovenly apartment. Truffaut has his cameraman moving up and down (and around) into different points of view, thus bringing the audience into the inquiring, searching perspective of the young actors. For all of the serious theme of the picture, however, it is neither somber nor patronizing, nor too sober for a thoroughly delightful sight gag. The physical education teacher, decked out in white shorts and sneakers, double times down the street with twenty or so boys wearing their regular outdoor dress. The camera falls back to a distance shot, presumably from atop a building, to watch contentedly as boys sneak out of line in twos and threes while the teacher trots along waving his arms, oblivious to anything except the satisfaction of his own exertions.

Why should teachers see *The 400 Blows*? Not only because of its skilled motion-picture craftsmanship but also because it depicts quite honestly what we euphemistically refer to as a "home situation." It shows how little a teacher often knows about the shaping influences that produce this child in his classroom. It traces what happens to a young boy when neither his home nor his school offers him friendship. His lone friend is a con-artist classmate whose own parents are so wrapped up in their pursuits that he never is discovered in any of his escapades.

Truffaut tells his story with a screenful of ironies. The action takes place during the Christmas season. Since we can see evidences of this around the city, it is prudently omitted from the dialogue. An ironic twist comes when the boy has to leave the abandoned factory where he had intended to spend the night after running away from home. He dispiritedly walks by a window with "Joyeux Noel" lettered on it. He is expelled from school for plagiarism because he has read Balzac so intently that he memorized a section of it. He is caught, not while stealing a typewriter, but while attempting to return it.

But the greatest irony applies to the entire



post-Code tradition of American films. Gilbert Seldes has, for a long time, articulately rapped American movies for their incredibly shallow representation of marriage. Only rarely do U. S. screens hint that husband and wife have any sort of deep romantic attachment for each other. The bedroom is a place where light comedy scenes occur, usually from twin beds. Truffaut does allow the husband a sexual caress of his wife, but, ironically, they do not love each other. It is a man-woman action not a husband-wife caress.

I could go on about the most charming and expressive children's faces (at a Punch-and-Judy show) that I have ever seen in a feature film. This group of tots even includes one strict conformist, who looks around to see if others are laughing before he begins his own chuckles. I could mention the superb acting by young Jean-Pierre Léaud when he is being questioned by the psychologist at the prison camp. And, for that matter, the very able acting by everyone else in the film. I could cite the use of contrast when the boy is riding along in the police wagon with the blasé harlots, all of them unloved. And I could mention the brilliantly underplayed ending in which the boy runs to the vast and lonely sea, only to find that there is really nothing there and that he must retreat from it. I could develop in detail these and other qualities of a brilliant motion picture, but because it lives in movement and sound, such remarks could relay little of its spirit.

Teachers and mature upperclassmen will do well to see *The 400 Blows*. It is one of the most literate observations of children and their problems available.

One economic footnote is in order. *The 400 Blows* was made for about a hundred thousand dollars. This amount is less than American business firms sometimes put into narcissistic documentaries that show what a grand bunch of fellas work down there at the corporation.

H.B.M.

## IN PRINT

### *Mask of Tears*

*Goodbye, Columbus* by PHILIP ROTH. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1959. 298 pages, \$3.75.

The story collection, *Goodbye, Columbus*, reveals a world of troubled people who, in spite of the massive tragedy they make of their private dilemmas, cannot quite conceal their comic

vitality. Philip Roth's characters seem to spend most of their time struggling to climb out of the pits of despair that they dig for themselves along the way. But a transcending coincidence of pride and humility brings them close to a beatific recognition of their humanity. With Chaucerian resiliency they travel from agony to agony in a domestic odyssey, where Ithaca promises only more suffering. Neil Klugman, narrator of the novella, "Goodbye, Columbus," knows that Brenda Patimkin uses her affection for him as a weapon in her emotional war with her mother. But Klugman, unable to remain coolly objective, complicates the affair by making Brenda prove the sincerity of her love. In the end she turns her gesture of faith into an instrument to hurt her mother and to heap ashes of shame on her own head, and Klugman discovers that he has played the role of agent rather than of lover.

Still, it is Neil Klugman's nature to involve himself. At his library job he militantly refuses to allow a book of Gauguin reproductions to circulate because a negro child steals in daily to sit on the floor and gasp at the Edenic serenity of the pictures. The world, with teeth bared, crouches in the shadows, waiting for men like Neil Klugman, but Philip Roth endows him with a sinuous capacity to endure. Brenda, who tries to piece together the fragments of her Marjorie Morningstar youth, relegates love to a subordinate position, to be set aside and picked up as the occasion demands. Klugman's uncompromising vision of love ruins the pattern, and they finally part.

The protagonist of "Epstein" sees the world as dirty laundry, and he seeks release in an adulterous affair with a neighbor widow. His wife has broadened into a trucklike shapelessness. His socialist-liberal daughter brings home guitar-strumming comrades who insult the hand that feeds them. Michael, a weekend guest, exploits Epstein's hospitality by conducting a love affair in the parlor. Choked by the anguish that seems to beset him at every turn, Epstein tries to relieve the building pressures by participating in a romance with Ida Kaufman. But his attempt to free himself from the dismal state of his life gives birth to new misery of shame and guilt. In a fantastic bedroom scene, with Epstein nakedly insisting his innocence, with his wife shouting his crime, and with his daughter and stray guests drifting in and out making smart moral comments, Mr. Roth presents a comedy reminiscent of some of the best scenes from Isaac Babel's masterful treatment of Odessan gangster heroes.

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Eli Peck of "Eli, the Fanatic" confronts the history of his race with a somber determination that his fashionable neighbors look upon as madness. Elected to evict a rabbinical orphanage because it somehow violates zoning laws, Eli finds himself pinned between two loyalties. Eli, like Neil Klugman of "Goodbye, Columbus," finds that he cannot partition life. He becomes sympathetically involved and actually exchanges roles with the most forlorn of the orphanage characters.

A simple but vital style paces these stories. Even the low spots contain brisk dialogue that matches some of the best efforts of J. D. Salinger and Bernard Malamud. The conversations between Neil Klugman and his aunt over a telephone call or a meal are in the exquisite idiom of Jewish tenement dwellers. And we see by comparison that the distance between the wealthy Patimkins and the apartment-over-the-store Klugmans is merely geographical. Generally, Philip Roth has presented a collection of very readable stories. *Goodbye, Columbus* has the distinction of having earned a Houghton Mifflin literary fellowship, and the collection gives promise of greater things to come.

FREDERICK S. KILEY  
Trenton State College

*Bargain Book*

*Mass Communication: a Sociological Perspective*  
by CHARLES R. WRIGHT. New York: Random House, Studies in Sociology, 1959. 124 pages, 95 cents.

Effective study of mass communication in the high schools is handicapped because of the gap between how much scholars have found out about the mass media and how little teachers have been able to find time to learn about them. Professor Wright's admirably lucid volume thus has a dual purpose: at the same time it introduces the thoughtful English and social studies teacher to the subject it is also an ideal text for a short unit on the mass media in the upper grades of academic high schools. There are five parts to the book: (1) the nature and functions of mass media; (2) comparative studies of Soviet, British, American, and nonindustrial systems; (3) the sociology of the audience; (4) the cultural content of American mass communication; and (5) the social effects. There is a good, brief bibliography. The book is required reading for department heads in English and social studies.

MARY E. HAZARD  
Levittown, Pennsylvania

# Audio-Visual News

By EVERETT B. LARE

## Teacher In-Service Materials

In-service courses for teachers in the audio-visual field are becoming more and more prevalent. May I suggest the usage of some of the materials listed below in such a course.

*A-V Instruction; Materials and Methods* by Brown, Lewis, and Harderod. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 330 W. 42d St., 1959. Textbook, 554 pages, \$7.95. The twenty-one chapters are divided into three parts. Part I, "Background for Teaching," has two chapters devoted to (1) learning and communication, and (2) planning for active learning. Part II, "Selecting and Using Ready-made Materials" includes such topics as resources for active learning, free and inexpensive materials, printed text and reference materials, globes and maps, filmstrips and photographic slides, films, radio and recordings, television. Part III, "Creating Instructional Materials," includes displaying, constructing, demonstrating and experimenting, dramatizing and discussing, recording, using graphics, using community resources, real things and their models, using still pictures, photographing, improving the room environment. This book is not only outstanding for the complete treatment according to the foregoing outline but also for its visual presentations, reference sections on equipment, sources of materials and supplies. An index according to subject area is useful for students interested in a limited field.

The five following films have been prepared for use with the above-named textbook. They may be obtained from the Text-Film Dept., McGraw-Hill Book Co.

(1) **THE INTEGRATED USE OF AUDIO-VISUAL MATERIALS:** film, 18 mins. The multipurpose uses of materials are demonstrated to emphasize the principle that instructional materials are most useful when used interrelatedly and not in isolation. Learning is most effective when varied approaches are used in solving problems, and materials are selected that strengthen and build upon each other.

(2) **USING READY-MADE MATERIALS EFFECTIVELY:** film, 18 mins. The wide variety of easily obtainable ready-made materials is described with emphasis on free and inexpensive materials. Creative use and adaptive application

of these materials in the teaching situation offer great opportunities for improving learning.

(3) **CREATING LEARNING MATERIALS:** film, 18 mins. The construction of learning materials by the teacher or the class can solve specific teaching problems at all grade levels and in all areas of the curriculum. The values of student-teacher planning and creative activity are underscored.

(4) **CHOOSING A FILM:** film, 18 mins. The uses to which classroom films can be put are varied, as is the subject matter. For example, films may be used to provide information, to make abstractions more concrete, or to provoke discussion. Film sequences show that the task of film evaluation can be simplified if the teacher is knowledgeable about the variety of films available for classroom use and also knows how to select films best suited for specific purposes.

(5) **HOW TO USE A FILM:** film, 18 mins. This is a detailed analysis of the right way and the wrong way to use a film in the classroom. Preliminary preparation of the class, techniques for skillful projection, postfilm discussion, and follow-up activities are demonstrated.

*A Guide for Use with Indiana Film Series in the Area of Preparation and Use of A-V Instructional Materials.* Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana, 1958. Book, 108 pages, \$2.00.

This guide takes up the following topics: Section I, "Mounting and Preserving," (a) rubber cement method, (b) dry mounting method, (c) picture manipulation, (d) wet mounting. Section II, "Display and Labeling," (a) lettering, (b) passe-partout, (c) bulletin boards. Section III, "Projection Methods," (a) handmade transparencies, (b) diazo, (c) reflex copying, (d) picture transfer or lifting, (e) photography. Section IV, "Tape Recording," (a) theory, (b) microphones, (c) editing and splicing, (d) suggested uses. Section V, "Sources." This guide is very practical, and is complete with illustrations on each page.

It is effective when used in preparation for or as a review with one or more of the following films designed to go with it:

Section I d, **WET MOUNTING PICTORIAL MATERIALS:** film, 12 mins., color (\$100), black and white (\$50). Pictures the complete process of wet mounting on cloth. Emphasizes proper

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rolling and demonstrates handling of noncolor-fast materials. Wet-mounted materials are shown in use as book pages, flip or turnover charts, opaque projection strips, and wall charts.

Section II a, **LETTERING INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS**: film, 20 mins., color (\$150), black and white (\$75). Surveys easy-to-use lettering methods. Shows how a wide variety of lettering methods may be used on signs, posters, bulletin boards, displays, and projection materials. Demonstrates rubber-stamp lettering, cut-out letters, stencils, pens and lettering guides, mechanical lettering, transparencies, adhesive letters.

Section II b, **PASSE-PARTOUT FRAMING**: film, 10 mins., color (\$100), black and white (\$50). Shows how to mount materials for display by making a sandwich of backing cardboard, a picture, and a transparent cover and frame. Shows how to vary the technique for three-dimensional materials. Concludes by showing numerous uses of this technique.

Section II c, **BETTER BULLETIN BOARDS**: film, 13 mins., color (\$100) black and white (\$50). Shows bulletin boards made of many materials including peg board and magnet board. Considers proper location, height, and lighting. Demonstrates the use of pegs, golf tees, hangers, and strings in addition to the conventional tacks, wax, and double-faced tape for the attaching of pictures, art work, photographs, models, and real objects. Lettering and design methods of stimulating interest are stressed.

Section III a, **HOW TO MAKE HANDMADE LANTERN SLIDES**: film, 21 mins., color (\$150), black and white (\$75). Shows how to make a variety of 3 1/4-inch by 4-inch slides. Among them are wax crayon and ink on clear and etched glass, plastic, and translucent paper; carbon on cellophane, using a typewriter for lettering; gelatin on glass and silhouette cutouts. Shows coloring with crayons, inks, and adhesive-colored cellophane.

Section III a and d, **HANDMADE MATERIALS FOR PROJECTION**: film, 20 mins., color (\$150), black and white (\$75). Emphasizes preparation of materials for overhead and

opaque projectors and 2-inch by 2-inch slide projectors. Methods and materials shown include carbon film, dot-dusted stencils, coated acetate, adhesive shading and coloring materials, and picture transfer or lifting.

Section III e, **PHOTOGRAPHIC SLIDES FOR INSTRUCTION**: film, 11 mins., color (\$100), black and white (\$50). Shows the wide range of materials that may be copied from books and magazines by photography. Shows flash photography, copying, and the use of the Polaroid transparency film.

Section III e, **HIGH CONTRAST PHOTOGRAPHY FOR INSTRUCTION**: film, 14 mins., color (\$100), black and white (\$50). Explains the process of making negatives and prints on high-contrast film. Demonstrates the copying of a line drawing from a book, preparing and making photo copies of material assembled on a flannel board, menu board, and a paste up. Shows various methods of coloring, the techniques of combining two negatives, and the making of multiple copies.

Section IV, **TAPE RECORDING FOR INSTRUCTION**: film, 15 mins., black and white, \$75. Shows the use of tape recorders in teaching situations and presents some of the various models of recorders. Demonstrates microphone placement and tells how to improve recording quality. Editing tapes is explained. Many uses are suggested.

*Integrated Teaching Materials* by Thomas and Swartout. New York: Longmans, Green and Co., 119 W. 40th St., 1960. Textbook, 560 pages, \$6.75.

Section titles give an idea of the contents. Section I, "Choosing the Best Method," includes conveying ideas skillfully and a process for selecting methods; Section II, "Reading or Text Materials," considers textbooks, reference and supplementary books, current reading materials, and creating reading materials; Section III, "Photographed Materials," explains motion pictures, filmstrips and slides, flat pictures, the taking of photographs, making slide series, filmstrips, motion pictures; Section IV, "Drawn and Printed Graphic Materials," demonstrates using charts, graphs, posters, creating graphics—design techniques and the media to use; Section V, "Broadcast and Recorded Materials," discusses recordings—disc and tape, using radio and television programs, creating radio programs, creating television programs; Section VI, "Constructed Materials," shows how to make maps and globes, models, and puppets; Section VII, "Real Life Materials," treats how to find and

use these materials; Section VIII, "Displaying and Administering Materials," considers classroom display areas and administering the teaching materials program. Several appendices list sources of textbooks, films, and recordings. Threading diagrams for motion-picture machines are included.

*They See What You Mean—Visual Communication with the Overhead Projector.* Johnson City, N.Y.: Ozalid Division of General Aniline and Film Corp., 1959. Book, 88 pages, \$2.00.

An excellent presentation of the entire field of transparencies for the overhead projector or 3¼-inch by 4-inch slide projector. Section I, "Visual Communications and the Overhead Projector" considers the advantages and uses of this type of projector; Section II, "Handmade Transparencies," pictorially portrays the sketch transparency, cutout visuals, mechanically produced transparencies, and photographic transparencies; Section III, "The Diazo Process," takes up the entire diazo process including diazo chemistry, diazo masters, transparencies, overlays, and moist process for multiple colors; Section IV, "Transferon," shows how to copy any opaque material and make diazo transparencies; Section V, "Transparency Mounting Techniques," emphasizes single image mounting, overlays, and roll mounting; Section VI, "Transparency Design," considers planning your transparency and gives hints on lettering; Section VII, "Overhead Projection Techniques," considers the physical arrangements for projection and special presentation techniques.

*The Audio-Visual Equipment Directory.* Fairfax, Va.: National Audio-Visual Association, Inc., 1960 ed. Book, 87 pages, \$4.75. This book includes specifications and prices for more than 700 models of equipment. New items included are language laboratory equipment, transparency-making equipment, classroom TV receivers, slide sorting and mounting equipment, slide binding equipment and materials, teaching machines and radio sets for classroom use. Of course, the latest in projection equipment, closed-circuit TV systems, record and transcription players, tape recorders, screens and tables plus related materials and equipment is included.

**HOW TO USE A FILMSTRIP:** sound filmstrip, color, free to club members, Eye Gate House, 146-01 Archer Ave., Jamaica 35, N.Y. This is an excellent presentation. The filmstrip starts with the purposes, and the practical and

educational advantages of a filmstrip. It points out that use of A-V materials requires planning, just as does all teaching and suggests a column in the plan book for this purpose. It continues with a discussion of effective use of these materials, with emphasis on the desirability of previewing to note points and list questions. The presentation is preceded by a demonstration of how to operate the equipment and how to make the physical conditions suitable for comfortable seeing and listening. The second half of the filmstrip is a complete lesson presentation on Egypt, using the techniques developed in the first half.

**HOW TO MAKE AND USE DIORAMAS:** film, color, 20 mins., Syracuse University A-V Center, Syracuse, New York. The construction of a diorama is shown in detail from the planning stage to the finished product. Objects are constructed for the foreground from wood, clay, and plastic. The background is painted to tone in with these objects. Learning possibilities are stressed throughout the film.

**LET'S TALK ABOUT FILMS:** film, 18 mins., black and white, \$80, National Film Board of Canada, 680 Fifth Ave., New York 19, N.Y. A film designed to show how discussion can be stimulated after a film showing if proper techniques are used. Previewing and the use of leading questions are the two techniques stressed.

Please consult the December, 1959, issue of *The Clearing House* (p. 255) for other filmstrips on audio-visual techniques from Ohio State University. Also see the April, 1959, issue (p. 510) for similar filmstrips from Basic Skill Films.

## THE CLEARING HOUSE

Index for Volume 34 appears on  
pages 569 to 576

This annual index is a most useful reference guide and contains a complete listing of all articles by title, author, and subject. Some offerings of the special featured departments also are included.

CH does not publish a cumulative index but includes an annual index in each May issue for the volume just concluded. Be sure to keep this copy for future use.



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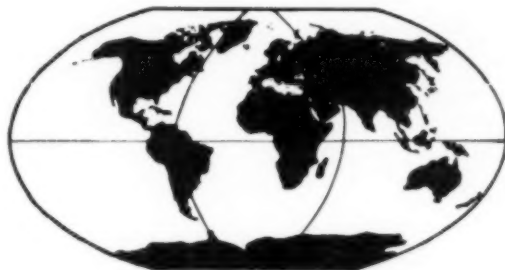
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## SCHOOL FOOD CENTERS—A Guide to Operating the School Lunch Program

N. L. GEORGE,  
Oklahoma City Public  
Schools; and

RUTH D. HECKLER,  
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**Comprehensive guide** describes the administration and operation of both large and small food centers. Includes practical information on planning and building food centers; the problems of securing, training, and holding good personnel. Explains formulation of efficient administrative policies and methods; gives sound advice on food control, records, purchasing, etc. "A valuable addition to the school food service field."—THE BULLETIN, 1960. 24 illus.; 335 pp.

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LOUIS SHORES,  
Florida State University

**This unique new guide** discusses all major types and subtypes of instructional materials—the whole range of media through which teacher and pupil communicate to advance learning. For each type of teaching tool there is a definition, an estimate of potential, criteria and sources for selection, etc. Book covers the organization of a materials center; devotes separate chapters to each major class of materials. 1960. 75 illus., tables; 408 pp.

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## EDUCATION of the GIFTED

MERLE R. SUMPTION,  
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and  
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**Just published.** A comprehensive presentation of research and theory, of organization and procedure, and of practice and personnel which deals with instruction of the gifted from infancy through the college years. Book develops solidly based and well thought-out programs for educating gifted children; gives methods for identifying giftedness. Discusses the advantages and disadvantages of special school programs. 1960. 499 pp.

\$5.50

## TECHNIQUES of SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHING

RALPH K. WATKINS,  
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**Widely praised** book stresses large-unit planning and its adaptation to various subject-matter areas as a practical approach to general teaching methods. Discusses determining objectives, selecting and organizing subject matter and activities, stimulating and directing learning experiences, and evaluating results. "Excellent . . . a well-organized, functional approach."—W. R. FULTON, University of Oklahoma. 1958. Illus.; 385 pp.

\$5.50

## The HIGH SCHOOL CURRICULUM

Edited by  
HARL R. DOUGLASS,  
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